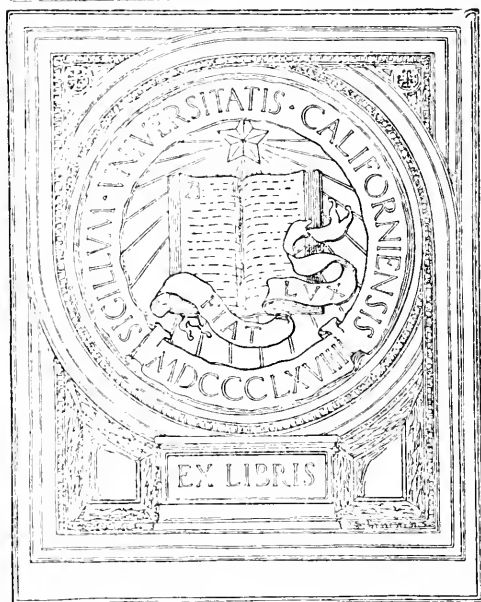




UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA
AT LOS ANGELES



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Mrs. Leonora B. Lucas





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GOVERNMENTS
OF THE
WORLD :
THEIR
HISTORY AND STRUCTURE.

BY

A. J. H. DUGANNE.

AUTHOR OF "MAN AND HIS MONEY-MEANS," "USES AND USUFRUCTS,"
"STATICS AND DYNAMICS OF POLITICAL ECONOMY," ETC., ETC.



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Entered according to Act of Congress, in the year 1881,

By A. J. H. DUGANNE,

In the office of the Librarian of Congress, at Washington,

The concluding chapters of this work, relating to Governmental structures, are not accompanied by marginal questions; but the sections of paragraphs are numbered, in order that teachers may review the subjects by question and answer, if it be deemed proper.

PREFACE.

The title and table of contents of this book sufficiently indicate its subject and scope. Simplicity of style and accuracy in facts have been main considerations with the author.

All doctrinal views of political, social, or religious questions, have been carefully avoided.

Since 1860, several European governments, and the United States government, have undergone changes, following the arbitrations of war; and such transitions are herein considered to the present year.

The "History of Governments" is now as complete as authentic data could render it; and is commended, as a Book of REFERENCE, as well as a SCHOOL Book, by many distinguished statesmen and scholars; from whose numerous letters the following NOTICES of the work are presented.

FROM HON. EDWARDS F. BRREPONT, ATTORNEY GENERAL, U. S.

It is a work of great condensation and industry; and contains an immense amount of most valuable information within a small comparative space. As a book of reference and instruction, it is of exceeding value.

HON. GEO. W. CLINTON, BUFFALO, N. Y.

I regard it as an admirable book of reference and instruction.

HON. MATTHEW HALE, M. C.

Remarkable for the amount of information it contains within a small compass. Every legislator, and, indeed, every intelligent voter, would find it a most convenient and valuable book of reference.

JUDGE E. GRAVES, STATE PRISON INSPECTOR.

It has no equal as a book of historical information for schools. It is so arranged and systematized that its contents may be more easily impressed upon the mind than any work of equal information I am acquainted with.

HON. HENRY D. BARTO, MEMBER CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION

Being a complete analysis of every form of government, stated in the plainest and simplest way, it is an invaluable addition to the list of school books, and should be in the hands of every pupil in the land.

HON. GIDEON WALES, MEMBER OF CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION.

Mr. Duganne's "History of Governments" contains a vast amount of information in a small compass. There is not an unnecessary word in the book.

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Opinions.

HON. E. S. PROSSER, M. C.

As a book of reference and instruction, I know of none equal to it ; and I shall be gratified to aid its circulation throughout our country.

HON. S. D. HAND, MEM. CONSTITUTIONAL CON.

Containing a vast amount of important information, in a condensed and available form, it must be of the greatest value to every American citizen, as well as a text book in our institutions of learning.

HON. E. E. FERRY, MEM. CONSTITUTIONAL CON.

It is a work of rare merit, especially adapted to meet the wants of our common schools, and need only be understood to be favorably appreciated.

HON. A. J. ALLEN, M. C.

It supplies a deficiency long felt by our schools. It should be introduced into every school district, as I doubt not it will be.

GEN. WM. H. MORRIS.

I consider it the best work of the kind I have yet seen. It would be invaluable to schools.

HON. AMASA J. PARKER, JUDGE OF SUPREME COURT.

I think it cannot fail to be highly prized as the most valuable historical compendium for the use of schools. As a book of reference it deserves a place in every library.

HON. C. V. R. LUDDINGTON, MEM. CONSTITUTIONAL CON.

I have given the "History of Governments" a careful examination, and regard it as a great accession to my library. It is a perspicuous and sententious compendium of the most important facts and events in the political history of mankind, which justly commends itself to every student.

HON. ISRAEL T. HATCH, M. C.

Its usefulness must be generally recognized. It is rarely we find so much historical information condensed in so small a space.

JUDGE LEANDER S. KETCHUM

I am particularly pleased with it. An experience of eight years in teaching convinced me of the great importance of a general knowledge of the *ancient* organization of governments. This is the first thing I have seen calculated to assist a desirable study.

HON. MARTIN I. TOWNSEND, M. C.

It is very rare that any work conveys such an amount of instruction in so concise and reliable a form.

HON. NATHANIEL JARVIS, N. Y. CITY.

A most thorough and instructive assistant: combining brevity and accuracy of detail with simplicity and succinctness of style; and so well adapted to teacher and scholar that I hope it may be found in our schools.

A. D. GILLETTE, D. D.

I consider the issue of such a work most timely—we need just the information this book gives. Its compactness and comprehensiveness are amazing.

DIST. ATTORNEY A. OAKLEY HALL.

Its statements of familiar propositions, and its illustrations of political history make this professedly "pupil" book a means of interest to the professional teacher. It should belong to the common school department of every state, and be introduced by legislative sanction.

HON. J. W. EDMONDS, JUDGE OF SUPREME COURT.

I have examined this work with care, and am struck with the plain and simple manner in which are treated the essential elements of history, as connected with all governments. It must be an excellent school book. It will be more than that to me; for it is already for me a "ready reference" to the more important parts of history.

HON. WM. CURTIS NOYES, L. L. D.

I like the book on governments exceedingly. It is full to overflowing of what is most valuable and what all young persons ought to know. The author's power of compressing, as well as of expression, is remarkable.

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HISTORY OF GOVERNMENTS.

CHAPTER I.

THE NATURAL LAWS OF NATIONS.

I.—(1.) The progress of every nation resembles the growth of a single human being. (2.) It is also marked by epochs or seasons, like the natural year that divides time. (3.) The first epoch of a nation is its Infancy, or Spring-time, which is the season when impressions are made upon it. (4.) The second epoch is its Youth, or Summer-time, which is the season of active labor. (5.) The third epoch is its Prime, or Autumn, which is the season of skill and strength. (6.) The fourth epoch is its Maturity, or Winter, which is the season of steadiness and repose.

II.—(1.) In the first epoch the *heart* of a nation receives impressions. (2.) This is because human affections are called into action. (3.) Individuals depend upon each other for assistance and defence. (4.) They help one another to obtain food, and to overcome natural obstacles and dangers. (5.) This mutual assistance forms a bond

I.—(1.) What does the progress of a nation resemble? (2.) How is it otherwise marked? (3.) What is said of the first epoch of a nation? (4.) Of the second? (5.) Of the third? (6.) Of the fourth?

II.—(1.) What takes place in the first epoch? (2.) Why is this? (3.) What is said of individuals? (4.) What do they do? (5.) What is the effect of this mutual assistance? (6.) Of what is mutual assistance the beginning?

to unite one person with another. (6.) It is the beginning of a connection between human beings, which is called *Society*.

III.—(1.) In the second epoch the *limbs* of a nation grow strong and active. (2.) This is because every individual seeks to improve his condition, and help others to improve theirs. (3.) One man assists another to hunt, or fish, or build a house. (4.) One person teaches to his fellows whatever he learns himself. (5.) In this way all the individuals act together, like limbs of one body. (6.) They combine their labor and skill, in order that each may be benefited.

IV.—(1.) During the second epoch people learn by *experience* and by *observation*. (2.) *Experience* means whatever a person suffers, or undergoes, or enjoys. (3.) When he suffers cold, or undergoes hardship, or enjoys food or drink, he *experiences* those things. (4.) *Observation* is the memory of experience, by which it may be known another time. (5.) When a person closes his eyes, he *experiences* darkness. (6.) When he remembers the darkness he experienced, he may be said to have *observed* it.

V.—(1.) When a person closes his eyes at one time, and opens them at another, he finds the effects different, through observation. (2.) He compares one effect with the other, and learns that shutting his eyes causes darkness, and opening them reveals light. (3.) In this way he explains effects and causes by experience and observation. (4.) This method of explanation becomes constant and familiar. (5.) The individual applies it to everything that occurs in his daily life.

III.—(1.) What occurs during the second epoch? (2.) Why is this? (3.) How is this done? (4.) In what other manner? (5.) What is the effect? (6.) What do they do?

IV.—(1.) What else takes place during the second epoch? (2.) What is meant by *Experience*? (3.) Give an example of experience? (4.) What is *Observation*? (5.) What is said about experience? (6.) What about observation?

V.—(1.) What is discovered through observation? (2.) What is learned by these operations? (3.) What is explained? (4.) What is said of this explanation? (5.) How does an individual apply it?

VI—(1.) The result of experience and observation is known by the name of *Education*. (2.) The term comes from a Latin word, *educō*, signifying “to lead or draw out.” (3.) Experience leads or draws out memory and comparison. (4.) Observation draws out a person’s thoughts, causing intelligence. (5.) When education is sound and active, the intelligence of an individual or a nation expands as it proceeds.

VII.—(1.) In the third epoch, the body-politic of a nation is formed. (2.) The body-politic means a union of education and activity in the mind and limbs of a community. (3.) This union is known as political life, and causes government or organized power. (4.) Government signifies the power of regulating the actions of a number of individuals, according to the desire of one, or several, or all.

VIII.—(1.) In the fourth epoch, a nation ought to be peaceful and strong. (2.) All persons in a community ought to be alike to one another, as members of the body-politic. (3.) One should be assisted in obtaining happiness in the same way that another is assisted. (4.) The life of one person should be safe just as the life of another is safe. (5.) Accordingly as the mind and heart of a nation have been educated, this will be the case or not. (6.) If they have been guided properly in the three former epochs, the fourth epoch will be quiet and secure. (7.) If they have been misdirected in those seasons, the fourth will be marked with trouble and suffering.

IX. (1.) The same laws of health and happiness that apply to a

VI.—(1.) How is the result of these operations known? (2.) From what does the term proceed? (3.) What does experience draw out? (4.) What does observation draw out? (5.) What is said of education?

VII.—(1.) What takes place at the third epoch? (2.) What is meant by the body-politic? (3.) What about this union? (4.) What does government signify?

VIII.—(1.) What ought to be the character of the fourth epoch? (2.) What is said of persons in a community? (3.) What should be done? (4.) What should be secured? (5.) On what does this depend? (6.) What if they have been properly guided? (7.) What if they have been misdirected?

IX.—(1.) What is remarked concerning the laws of health and happiness?

human individual apply also to a community. (2.) A community or nation signifies a number of persons combined. (3.) It is a collection or multiplication of individuals. (4.) The proper education of a nation begins with the proper teaching of one person as a member of the collection.

X.—(1.) A collection of several individuals is called society. (2.) When they are combined to help each other, they become organized, and form a state or nation. (3.) When they make regulations to guide one another, they create a government, and their regulations are known as laws

XI.—(1.) An organized collection of individuals is the body-politic. (2.) If an individual is in health he stands erect, and is able to move and act as a human being. (3.) His blood flows in regular currents, and every limb or organ performs its functions in harmony with other limbs and organs. (4.) A state is in health when the rights and duties of every member are distinctly defined and clearly understood. (5.) When the interests of citizens do not conflict, a community or body-politic is said to enjoy political and social health.

XII.—(1.) No human body enjoys unvarying health, with entire freedom from pain or liability to contract disease. (2.) In every stage of life, the human body is susceptible to injury from many causes. (3.) Changes of climate and temperature, and other agencies, interrupt the continuance of bodily health.

XIII.—(1.) In like manner, no community or body-politic has

(2.) What does a community signify? (3.) Of what is it a collection? (4.) How does its proper education begin?

X.—(1.) What is the collection of individuals called? (2.) How do they become organized, and what do they then form? (3.) What takes place when they make regulations?

XI.—(1.) Explain the body-politic. (2.) What is said of an individual in health? (3.) How is his health manifested? (4.) When is a body-politic or state in health? (5.) How is the health of a community known?

XII.—(1.) What is said about a human body? (2.) To what is the body susceptible? (3.) What interrupts its health?

XIII.—(1.) What is remarked in regard to the community or body-politic?

been known to endure, for any long period, without abuses of its political well-being. (2.) Derangements take place, because social life is subject to change and injury, just as individual life is liable to the same. (3.) It is to preserve the individual bodily health that the skill of physicians and aid of medicine are found necessary. (4.) In the same way, laws and regulations of government are requisite to maintain social and political health. (5.) These laws must correct all deviations from just principles, and secure to every element of society its proper place and action.

XIV.—(1.) A wise physician knows that entire physical health is not compatible with mortal life. (2.) He applies his knowledge and skill to the discovery of causes and cures of disease. (3.) In like manner, a good statesman or citizen does not look for perfection in the operations of any political system. (4.) He seeks, through experience and observation, to discover what form and spirit of laws are best fitted to meet the wants of combined individuals or society. (5.) He endeavors to harmonize, as far as possible, all the elements of a community. (6.) He tries to equalize their political and social rights, privileges, burdens, and benefits.

XV.—(1.) Every human body is liable to be attacked by outward elements dangerous to its health. (2.) Too much heat or cold, water, fire, wind, and other forces, threaten it always. (3.) Every human body is subject to abuse, derangement, and decay, from neglect or injury. (4.) Every body-politic or community is also opposed by foreign elements, or enemies. (5.) It is liable to internal disorders, growing out of a disregard of rights and duties. (6.) Political and social health suffer more or less from these causes.

(2.) Why do derangements take place? (3.) What are necessary to preserve bodily health in an individual? (4.) What are requisite for social and political health? (5.) What must these laws effect?

XIV.—(1.) What is said of a wise physician? (2.) How does he apply his knowledge and skill? (3.) What about a good citizen? (4.) What does he seek? (5.) What is his endeavor? (6.) How does he effect this?

XV.—(1.) To what is the human body liable? (2.) What threaten it? (3.) To what is it subject? (4.) How does the body-politic resemble the human body? (5.) To what is the body-politic liable? (6.) What result takes place?

XVI.—(1.) Danger threatens a state on account of the neighborhood of ambitious or unruly states foreign to itself. (2.) Danger threatens it from the attacks of wandering people who come out of other parts of the earth in quest of subsistence. (3.) Disorder may arise in a community by reason of its containing bad men, who contrive to usurp power. (4.) Its members may be deprived of rights, or have unjust burdens imposed upon them.

XVII.—(1.) When a human body possesses robust, natural health, it is in a condition to endure or resist outward attacks. (2.) If it loses some vitality, the loss is soon repaired, because its life-currents are not obstructed. (3.) All its natural forces act in harmony with each other. (4.) The possession of a sound bodily system renders an individual less liable to injuries from without. (5.) He is not in danger of disease so long as he keeps his system properly nourished and protected. (6.) Some portion of his body must be weakened before disease can attack him.

XVIII.—(1.) A body-politic is influenced by similar causes, and undergoes like operations. (2.) Its health and life are governed by laws, and subject to agencies of injury, corresponding to those which affect an individual. (3.) As “the child” is said to be “father of the man,” so an individual serves as a type or pattern of the state.

XVI.—(1.) How may dangers threaten a state? (2.) To what other danger is it liable? (3.) What else may arise? (4.) What may result from this?

XVII.—(1.) What is said of a healthy human body? (2.) What if it loses some vitality? (3.) How do its natural forces act? (4.) How is an individual benefited by a sound bodily system? (5.) What advantage does he possess? (6.) What must take place to cause disease?

XVIII.—(1.) What is said of a body-politic? (2.) How are its health and life governed? (3.) What remark is made concerning an individual?

CHAPTER II.

COMBINATION OF INDIVIDUALS.

I.—(1.) THE spring-time, or infancy, of a community is its season of natural health. (2.) This is more or less robust according to the harmony that exists between the individuals combined together. (3.) In a combination of individuals, each person may be independent of every other person. (4.) He may, on the other hand, relinquish a portion of his independence and submit to be ruled by one or more of his fellows.

II.—(1.) In the infancy of every community, each individual member of it acted more or less independently of all other members. (2.) The body-politic was developed and strengthened in proportion to the development and growth of the individuals combined. (3.) The experience of one man guided others, and his observations assisted all to whom he made them known. (4.) The experience and observations of each formed a stock of knowledge for the community.

III.—(1.) Every individual was master of his own actions, but all were mutually dependent. (2.) This was because they exchanged one another's experiences and discoveries. (3.) Mutual dependence was the link of human intercourse, and organized society proceeded out of it by degrees.

IV.—(1.) A solitary human being might be able to tame wild

I.—(1.) What is the spring-time of a community? (2.) What about its health? (3.) What may be the character of a combination? (4.) What may each individual relinquish?

II.—(1.) What about the infancy of every community? (2.) How was the body-politic developed? (3.) What took place in such a community? (4.) What was formed?

III.—(1.) What is said of every individual? (2.) Why was this? (3.) What is said concerning mutual dependence?

IV.—(1.) What individual power might a solitary human being possess?

animals and make them his companions and servants. (2.) He could teach the dog to guard his hut, and the horse to bear his burden. (3.) But his combination with dogs and horses could not form a state. (4.) This is because the bond of a state, or community, consists of mutual sympathy and understanding, expressed by human language and affections. (5.) Such a bond could not exist between man and the brute creation.

V.—(1.) A state, or human society, must be founded in relations of sympathy, affection, and interest. (2.) Accordingly as these relations harmonize or conflict, so the community is healthy or otherwise. (3.) Common interests and objects of society are founded upon privileges and rights of individuals. (4.) The first right of an individual man is his right to live, the second is his right to be free, and the third is his right to seek happiness.

VI.—(1.) If two human individuals dwell together, in a place otherwise uninhabited by man, their intercourse is known as society. (2.) Their combination, for mutual assistance and defence, constitutes the simplest form of a community. (3.) Such combination may be called a state in its infancy. (4.) If one of the two individuals snares game in the forest, and the other takes fish in the river, and they divide these spoils, they establish a community of food or subsistence. (5.) If one keeps watch while the other sleeps, to guard against dangerous animals, they form a community of defence. (6.) If they sympathize with each other in tastes and habits, they constitute a community of friendship or affection. (7.) Combined in this manner they are a healthy society, or state.

VII.—(1.) If a third individual be added to the community of

(2.) What could he do? (3.) What could he not accomplish? (4.) What was the reason? (5.) Where could not such a bond exist?

V.—(1.) On what must a state be founded? (2.) What is said regarding these relations? (3.) On what are common interests and objects founded? (4.) What are the rights of every individual?

VI.—(1.) Explain what is meant by society? (2.) What is a simple community? (3.) What may it be called? (4.) What is a community of subsistence? (5.) Describe a community of defence? (6.) What is a community of friendship? (9.) What does this constitute?

VII.—(1.) What may cause a separation of interests in a simple community?

two, a separation of interests may take place. (2.) The third person may possess greater physical strength, or be more crafty than the others, and so claim a superiority or authority. (3.) He may be able to unite one of the original companions to himself, and then make the third a servant, through fear. (4.) Should such a separation of interests take place, the society would no longer constitute a healthy community. (5.) The authority of one individual over his companions, maintained by his superior strength or cunning, and because of their weakness, would be disease. (6.) It would disturb the relations that before existed, and endanger the individual rights of life, of liberty, and of happiness.

VIII.—(1.) The forced inferiority of a portion of the small community to another portion would allow unequal burdens to be imposed upon the weakest. (2.) The rights and interests of the latter would then be destroyed. (3.) This would cause disorder in the entire body-politic. (4.) Such disorder, and conflict of individual interests, would soon endanger the community's existence.

IX.—(1.) The injured or oppressed persons might manifest their sufferings by outward speech or action. (2.) Such manifestations in a community are termed divisions, conspiracies, rebellions and revolutions. (3.) Sometimes they act like spasms of pain in a human body. (4.) They are always an evidence that disease or derangement exists, and that the community seeks relief from its afflictions.

X.—(1.) Every human body containing life must possess some power to manifest that life. (2.) A diseased body-politic, or nation,

(2.) What may the third person possess and claim? (3.) What may he be able to do? (4.) What would be the effect? (5.) What would the third person's authority be? (6.) Why would it be disease?

VIII.—(1.) What would forced inferiority of a portion allow? (2.) What would be destroyed? (3.) What would this cause? (4.) What would it endanger?

IX. (1.) How would the disorder be shown? (2.) What are such manifestations called? (3.) How do they sometimes act? (4.) Of what are they an evidence?

X.—(1.) What about every human body? (2.) What of a diseased nation?

may have healthy citizens who know when the state is disordered. (3.) The healthy citizens use their faculties to show others where disease exists. (4.) This sometimes occasions a movement of all, and changes the whole state. (5.) Such a change is known as revolution.

XI.—(1.) If three persons in a community of five submit to obey a single person as their ruler, they surrender their right to be independent. (2.) The agreement of three out of five to obey, gives one the privilege to command. (3.) The state then becomes a monarchy, and the one who commands is king. (4.) If four obey one in everything, his authority is absolute. (5.) The state is then a despotism. (6.) If four obey one only at certain times, and for certain purposes, and are independent otherwise, the ruler's authority is restricted. (7.) The state is then a limited monarchy.

XII.—(1.) If five persons forming a community agree that three may make all regulations, and that one shall see those regulations observed, the state becomes republican. (2.) The three persons who make regulations are the legislature, or law-making power. (3.) The one who takes care of their observance is the magistrate, or executive power. (4.) This is the form of government called a popular republic. (5.) It is popular because the larger number of all the people agree in organizing the state.

XIII.—(1.) If three persons of the five choose a fourth to make the laws, telling him what kind of laws they wish made, the single person represents all. (2.) The state then becomes a representative popular republic. (3.) If the three choose another to be

(3.) What do healthy citizens do? (4.) What does this occasion? (5.) What is the change called?

XI.—(1.) What is said of a community of five? (2.) What follows this? (3.) What takes place in the state? (4.) What makes absolute authority? (5.) What is the state then called? (6.) What makes restricted authority? (7.) What does the state then become?

XII.—(1.) How is a republic formed? (2.) What is the Legislature? (3.) What is the Executive power? (4.) What is such form of government called? (5.) Why is it popular?

XIII.—(1.) How may one person represent all? (2.) What is such a form of government called? (3.) How is a representative monarchy formed?

king, according to the laws they have made, they organize a representative monarchy. (4.) If they allow a son or daughter of the king to succeed the father without their interference, the state becomes a hereditary monarchy. (5.) Three out of five have always a right to change or modify any form of government. (6.) This is because three form the larger number, or majority, of five. (7.) Whenever they surrender this right entirely, the state becomes diseased.

XIV.—(1.) In studying the history of mankind we meet with various forms of government. (2.) Many of these forms have been the cause of disorder in the state. (3.) History tells us how the people of states have tried to escape disorder by changes of government. (4.) The history of every nation is an account of individuals endeavoring to combine their several interests. (5.) Those interests have always been comprised in the right of each person to live, to be free, and to seek for happiness.

XV.—(1.) When any government is capable of securing every individual the enjoyment of his rights, the nation in which that individual lives may be called healthy. (2.) All persons have an equal interest in maintaining such a state or nation, as an entire body-politic. (3.) It is only by good government that individual rights can be protected. (4.) It is the duty of every person in a community to assist in making good government.

(4.) What makes a hereditary monarchy? (5.) What is said of three persons out of five? (6.) Why is this? (7.) What occurs when this right is surrendered?

XIV.—(1.) What do we meet with, in studying history? (2.) What have many of these forms caused? (3.) What are we told by history? (4.) What is the history of every nation? (5.) In what are those interests comprised?

XV.—(1.) When is a nation healthy? (2.) In what have all persons an interest? (3.) How are individual rights protected? (4.) What is every person's duty?

CHAPTER III.

PROGRESS OF SOCIETY.

I.—(1.) THE Creator of all things saw fit, in his wisdom, to leave the first parents of our race to the guidance of their own instincts. (2.) The development of their capacities was to proceed out of the experience of each individual. (3.) This experience was to be gained in combination with other individuals.

II.—(1.) Divine foresight had measured the difficulties through which mankind was to work out its destiny. (2.) God gave to each object that he created certain capacities. (3.) He placed all the stores and forces of nature at the disposal of human beings alone

III.—(1.) Mankind was to become powerful and enlightened by a simple and natural progression. (2.) Daily experience, and certain laws of growth and expansion, were to direct and govern every person. (3.) The same laws were applicable, in a more limited degree, to the vegetable and geological world.

IV.—(1.) An oak-tree could not spring at once to luxuriant maturity, but must grow gradually. (2.) Its growth is assisted by various natural forces. (3.) These forces work in harmonious combination.

V.—(1.) Heat, light, and moisture, contribute their assistance

I.—(1.) What is said of the Creator? (2.) How was the development to proceed? (3.) How was each person's experience to be gained?

II.—(1.) What had Divine foresight done? (2.) What did God give to each creature? (3.) How did He distinguish human beings?

III.—(1.) How was man to be developed? (2.) What were to direct every person? (3.) To what were the same laws applicable?

IV.—(1.) What is said of an oak tree? (2.) How is its growth assisted? (3.) How do these forces work?

V.—(1.) What three elements of nature contribute their assistance?

to the life of every tree. (2) From a small acorn hidden in the earth, a tender sprout springs upward. (3.) The sprout grows, and becomes clothed with bark, branches, and leaves.

VI.—(1.) In like gradual process, the sun's heat draws mist from the earth. (2.) Clouds gather in the air, and rain descends from them. (3.) Firstly a small mountain stream is formed. (4.) This stream widens into a river, and broadens into a lake.

VII.—(1.) In course of time trees wither, and molder back into earth. (2.) They then undergo new influences of nature. (3.) They become hardened into foundations for new forests.

VIII.—(1.) Thus the laws of growth, development, and change, govern physical nature. (2.) The same laws, overwatched by an all-wise Creator, regulate mankind in its progression. (3.) Individuals and nations are alike governed by them.

IX.—(1.) Mankind is first observed as a pair. (2.) This is the relation or community of husband and wife. (3.) The intelligence of this community was first measured by the extent of its experience and observation. (4.) Its desires were limited by the instincts of human nature.

X.—(1.) Experience showed the convenience of personal covering, as protection against heat or cold. (2.) Observation taught the utility of precaution and defence. (3.) Weapons were invented and used against wild animals. (4.) The first rude attempt at building was made by arranging some bower or hut for shelter.

(2.) How does growth proceed? (3.) What progressive changes take place?

VI.—(1.) What does the sun's heat do? (2.) What happens then? (3.) What is first formed from the falling rain? (4.) What then follows?

VII.—(1.) What takes place in course of time? (2.) What do they undergo? (3.) What do they become?

VIII.—(1.) What is said concerning certain laws? (2.) What further is remarked? (3.) How do these laws operate?

IX.—(1.) How is mankind first observed? (2.) What relation is this? (3.) How was the intelligence of this community measured? (4.) How were its desires limited?

X.—(1.) What did experience show to this first community? (2.) What did observation teach? (3.) What about weapons? (4.) What **about building**?

XI.—(1.) By experience the changes of temperature and alternation of seasons became known. (2.) Observation revealed the growth of vegetation. (3.) The community learned the time of seed and of harvest, of winter and summer.

XII.—(1.) The stores and forces of nature opened to mankind a source of unfailing subsistence. (2.) It became known that exertion was necessary on the part of each individual. (3.) The community learned to provide simple stores of clothing and food for its wants. (4.) These stores accumulated, and were kept for future use. (5.) They thus became separated from the general stores of nature, common to wild and domestic animals.

XIII.—(1.) The collection of such simple articles of use, for their reservation by the community, was the beginning of ownership. (2.) The articles kept became *property*. (3.) The idea of property, or ownership, thus grew out of prudence in reserving stores for the future.

XIV.—(1.) The community was to grow larger, and a new bond of interest was to be added to the household. (2.) The family of two, or husband and wife, was to become a family, or community, of three—husband, wife, and child.

XI.—(1.) What became known by experience? (2.) What did observation reveal? (3.) What did the community learn?

XII.—(1.) What was now opened to mankind? (2.) What was also shown to be necessary? (3.) What did the community learn? (4.) What of these stores? (5.) From what were these stores separated?

XIII.—(1.) What was the beginning of ownership? (2.) What did the articles become? (3.) From what did the idea of property grow?

XIV.—(1.) What was to take place in the community? (2.) What was the family of husband and wife to become?

CHAPTER IV.

THE PATRIARCHAL SYSTEM.

I.—(1.) THE community of husband, wife, and child, was the first form of familism, or domestic society. (2.) As time passed, the members of this community grew numerous. (3.) It became necessary to distinguish one individual from another, by more particular designations than the terms, parents, brethren, and children. (4.) Male and female names were bestowed or adopted. (5.) The division and classification of descendants then began.

II.—(1.) The first-born son and his children were supposed to represent a direct succession. (2.) They were held distinct from the descendants of the second-born son. (3.) This separation of children was made for the convenience of the household or family society. (4.) It was the first step toward wider social, and future political, divisions.

III.—(1.) The distinction enjoyed by a first-born son and his descendants constituted what was called their birthright. (2.) They claimed a sort of authority over their other brethren, from generation to generation.

IV.—(1.) The first father was considered during his life to be head of the household. (2.) He exercised the highest influence in deciding differences. (3.) He dispensed such lessons of knowledge as his more extensive experience and observation had accumulated.

I.—(1.) What is said of the community of husband, wife, and child? (2.) What took place as time passed? (3.) What became necessary? (4.) What was then done? (5.) What was begun?

II.—(1.)—What were the first-born supposed to represent? (2.) How were their descendants held? (3.) Why was this separation made? (4.) To what did it lead?

III.—(1.) What constituted birthright? (2.) What claim did this birthright allow?

IV.—(1.) How was the first father regarded? (2.) What did he exercise? (3.) What did he dispense?

V.—(1.) In this relation the first-born was venerated and obeyed by his children and their offspring. (2.) He occupied the position of father or patriarch. (3.) His authority constituted that form of domestic control which is called, in history, the patriarchal government.

VI.—(1.) The Bible gives an account of patriarchal authority, as it existed in the family of our first parents. (2.) This form of authority continued through the families of Noah, and later still, through the households of Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob.

VII.—(1.) Such authority was the first kind of human regulation recognized by man in his infant state. (2.) It was founded upon affection and reverence for the head of the family.

VIII.—(1.) At this period of history the term of mortal life was a long one. (2.) The authority of a patriarch was extended over several generations of his descendants.

IX.—(1.) Children, as they grew up, were taught their relations toward the head of the family. (2.) They learned to heed his counsels and submit to his authority.

X.—(1.) The patriarchal regulation was a very necessary and natural one in the household. (2.) This was because the *heart*, or affections, are impressed during a nation's infancy. (3.) The children revered the father, and trusted in his superior knowledge and prior experience. (4.) The father ruled the children through love and respect which they bore to him.

V.—(1.) What was the effect of this relation? (2.) What was the position of the first-born? (3.) What did his authority constitute?

VI.—(1.) What book gives an account concerning patriarchal authority? (2.) What is said of this form?

VII.—(1.) What was this authority? (2.) On what was it founded?

VIII.—(1.) What is said of mortal life at this period? (2.) How did this influence the patriarchal authority?

IX.—(1.) What were children taught? (2.) What did they learn?

X.—(1.) What is said regarding the patriarchal regulation? (2.) Why was this? (3.) How did children regard the father? (4.) How did the father rule the children?

XI.—(1.) A patriarch occupied the first place at all times; for him the children gathered fruits and flowers, and to him the youths applied for counsel. (2.) The wife, or partner, shared his love, and looked up to him with affectionate confidence.

XII.—(1.) The Patriarchal System is noticed in all the earliest records of our race. (2.) It is practised, with slight modifications, at the present time, in many parts of the earth. (3.) Rude communities, not yet expanded into the relations of organized government, usually dwell under a patriarch.

XIII.—(1.) In portions of Asia and Africa, numerous communities or families are regulated by patriarchal systems. (2.) Households and clans of Arabian and Tartar races are each governed by a central Sheikh or Father. (3.) Their mode of government is the same as was practised in the earliest times under Abraham.

XIV.—(1.) The word *Patriarch* signifies *Father*. (2.) It denotes the relationship of head, or chief, of a family. (3.) The Greek word from which it is derived, was *Patriarches* (πατριάρχης). (4.) This signifies *head*, or principal, of the *patria* (πατρία), or family. (5.) It was formed of two Greek words, *pater* (πατερ), father, and *archos* (αρχος), a chief. (6.) In later times, the title *patricius*, the Latin word for father, was bestowed on nobles and senators in Rome. (7.) The Roman higher class was called the *patrician* class.

XI.—(1.) What distinctions did the patriarch enjoy? (2.) What relation did his wife or partner bear to the patriarch?

XII.—(1.) Where is the Patriarchal System noticed? (2.) Does it still continue? (3.) What sort of communities are usually under a patriarch?

XIII.—(1.) Where do numerous communities of this kind now exist? (2.) What is said of Arabian and Tartar races? (3.) What of their mode of government?

XIV.—(1.) What does the word *patriarch* signify? (2.) What does it denote? (3.) From what is the term derived? (4.) What does that signify? (5.) How was the Greek word formed? (6.) What is said about the word *patricius*? (7.) What was the patrician class of Rome?

CHAPTER V.

EMIGRATION FROM THE FAMILY.

I.—(1.) THE patriarchal system was dependent upon bonds of kindred and domestic relations. (2.) Its sphere was the household, or united family. (3.) It was influential in proportion to the respect that all the members of a domestic community accorded to the chief father.

II.—(1.) As time passed and families multiplied, the central control began to lose force. (2.) The patriarch increased in years, and his age caused a loss of bodily and mental vigor. (3.) Younger members of the family expanded in capacity and knowledge. (4.) New wants and separate interests grew up by degrees.

III.—(1.) The superiority claimed by descendants of the first-born son, began to create discontent. (2.) Those who were descended from the second, third, and other sons of the first father, grew dissatisfied. (3.) This caused rivalry between various lines or branches of descent. (4.) As the right of ownership in property became defined, the various branches began to compete with each other in accumulating goods.

IV.—(1.) The effect of such rivalry was to make a separation of household interests. (2.) It led to the occupation, by different branches, of separate fields and dwelling-places. (3.) One brother and his descendants lived apart from another brother and his descendants.

I.—(1.) On what was the patriarchal system dependent? (2.) What was its sphere? (3.) How was it influential?

II.—(1.) What took place as time passed? (2.) What is said of the patriarch? (3.) What concerning other members of the family? (4.) What grew up by degrees?

III.—(1.) What created discontent? (2.) Who grew dissatisfied? (3.) What did this cause? (4.) What then occurred?

IV.—(1.) What effect had such rivalry? (2.) To what did it lead? (3.) What was the result?

V.—(1.) It soon came to pass that one of the branches grew tired of patriarchal authority and desired to separate altogether from the rest. (2.) The head of such a branch then collected his wealth, consisting of arms, clothing, and simple implements of industry. (3.) He gathered his wife, children, and dependents, to journey with him from the place where they dwelt. (4.) He bade farewell to his brethren and the patriarch, and set forth with his followers, to wander in search of some other plain or valley. (5.) He sought to be independent of control, and to find better fields or more abundant game.

VI.—(1.) This was the first emigration, or passage from one locality of dwelling to another that promised superior benefits. (2.) Experience had satisfied man that the patriarchal system was not suited to his wants. (3.) He wandered away, to better his condition.

VII.—(1.) The first emigrants abandoned the general family, to seek their fortune in untried wilds. (2.) They unconsciously became the pioneers of national life. (3.) Their progress was to be the measure of mankind's march toward future civilization.

VIII.—(1.) Emigration usually results from a desire to escape restrictions, hardships, or privations. (2.) Human beings change their homes, to find other localities where human wishes may be satisfied and human conditions bettered.

IX.—(1.) Just such human desires and efforts influenced the first wanderers from a household. (2.) They sought out other dwelling-

V.—(1.) What soon came to pass? (2.) How did the head of such a branch proceed? (3.) What else did he do? (4.) To what did he bid farewell? (5.) What did he seek?

VI.—(1.) What was this movement? (2.) What had experience done? (3.) What was the object of man's wandering?

VII.—(1.) What did the first emigrants do? (2.) What did they unconsciously become? (3.) What was their progress to be?

VIII.—(1.) From what does emigration result? (2.) Why do human beings change their homes?

IX.—(1.) What influenced the first wanderers? (2.) What did they seek

places, in order to form communities. (3.) Similar motives impel savage tribes and families at the present day, in some parts of the earth. (4.) They pass their original limits, and locate in other territories, and sometimes among other peoples.

X.—(1.) The first emigrants wandered to a sheltered valley, by the borders of a river, or to the sea shore. (2.) There they pitched tents or built rude huts. (3.) There they began anew the system of family government, or else combined themselves in a tribe or clan.

XI.—(1.) In combining as a tribe, the community became known under the name or title borne by its leader or head. (2.) Such name was likewise used to distinguish the district or area of country where the tribe located its dwellings.

XII.—(1.) We read in the Bible that Canaan, a grandson of Noah, gave his name to his followers and kindred who dwelt with him. (2.) They became known as the tribe or people of Canaan, and were called Canaanites. (3.) The territory which they occupied, with their habitations, was known as the land of Canaan or the land of the Canaanites.

(3.) What is said of the same motives now? (4.) What do these tribes do?

X.—(1.) Whither did the first emigrants wander? (2.) What did they do?
(3.) What did they begin?

XI.—(1.) How did the community become known? (2.) What did the name also distinguish?

XII.—(1.) What do we read in the Bible? (2.) What were they called?
(3.) How was their territory known?

CHAPTER VI

NOMADIC, OR WANDERING LIFE.

I.—(1.) A RUDE family of men, women, and children, in the wilderness, could only depend upon their skill and courage to procure the necessaries of life. (2.) They travelled from one forest or plain to another, seeking good hunting-grounds, where they might snare or kill game.

II.—(1.) This wandering kind of existence was called by the Greeks *nomadic* life. (2.) *Nomadic* comes from a Greek word *nomadikos* (νομαδικος). (3.) It signifies *wandering* or living by grazing. (4.) Most of the early nomads travelled with asses or camels, and stopped at places where grass was plenty.

III.—(1.) Some tribes were destitute of beasts of burden. (2.) These depended on their own limbs and weapons for security and subsistence. (3.) They hunted and killed wild animals to obtain food and clothing.

IV.—(1.) At the present day, there are tribes that wander, hunt, and fish, just as there were in the earliest ages of the world. (2.) Arabs and Tartars generally live by pasturing flocks in the wildernesses of Asia. (3.) The red tribes of America subsist on game and fruits. (4.) Both races dwell in tents or huts, and move from place to place in the manner of ancient tribes.

I.—(1.) On what could a wandering family depend? (2.) What did its members do?

II.—(1.) What was this mode of existence called? (2.) From what does the word “nomadic” come? (3.) What does this word signify? (4.) How did most early nomads travel?

III.—(1.) What is said of some tribes? (2.) On what did these depend? (3.) What did they do?

IV.—(1.) What are there at the present day? (2.) How do Arabs and Tartars live? (3.) How do the red American tribes subsist? (4.) In what respects do these races resemble each other?

V.—(1.) Jealousy of restraint and dislike to obey fellow individuals, caused the first emigrants to prefer a wandering life. (2.) In a wilderness they could select their own abodes and hunting-fields, and be independent of other men. (3.) Freedom of choice and desire of change became constant motives of action.

VI.—(1.) The property possessed by each individual, in a tribe that wandered in search of game, was of little value. (2.) It was usually confined to clothing, arms, and other necessities. (3.) No individual could boast of superiority on account of what he owned. (4.) He could only claim to be stronger, braver, or more skillful than another. (5.) The property most valued by the tribe was a good hunting-ground, where all could find game.

VII.—(1.) When a hunting community became at variance with another tribe, the cause of quarrel was generally a dispute concerning the possession of some hunting-ground. (2.) Sometimes the difficulty arose from a grievance inflicted by an individual of one tribe on an individual of another.

VIII.—(1.) In a war between two hunting tribes, each sought to kill as many individuals as possible. (2.) If prisoners were taken they were either tortured to death or adopted as members of the tribe capturing them. (3.) Captives were seldom or never made to serve as slaves.

IX.—(1.) Slaves were of no use among a tribe of hunters, because there was no labor for them to perform. (2.) The males of such a tribe killed their own game, and their food and clothing

V.—(1.) What caused the first emigrants to prefer a wandering life? (2.) What advantage had they in a wilderness? (3.) What were their motives of action?

VI.—(1.) What is said concerning property in a hunting tribe? (2.) To what articles was it usually confined? (3.) Of what could no individual boast? (4.) What alone could he claim? (5.) What property was most valued?

VII.—(1.) What was generally a cause of quarrel between hunting tribes? (2.) What other cause sometimes occurred?

VIII.—(1.) What was sought in the warfare of such tribes? (2.) What was done with prisoners? (3.) What is said of captives?

IX.—(1.) Why were slaves not made by a hunting tribe? (2.) What is

were prepared by the females. (3.) Slaves could not be profitable to a community that existed only by the chase.

X.—(1.) When a wandering tribe became stationary in some district of country, the condition of nomadism was changed to that of *settlement*, or village life. (2.) Settlement consisted in establishing a locality, or permanent dwelling-place, and there making habitations for all the families of the tribe.

XI.—(1.) Settlement was the beginning of social and political growth. (2.) A settled or located tribe was a nation in its infancy. (3.) Here commenced the regular tillage of ground, and the cultivation of corn and fruits. (4.) Here man ceased to depend altogether upon the chase for his livelihood. (5.) He looked to seed-time and harvest as means of supplying his wants.

XII.—(1.) We must trace the progress of such a settled community through changing forms of growth, organization, and regulation. (2.) By this means we may understand what is meant by government. (3.) We shall learn in what respects one kind of government may differ from another.

XIII.—(1.) We recollect, in this connection, that every community, or body-politic, is like a single human being. (2.) It is subject to injury and disease, as well as to laws of health and growth. (3.) We shall find that each community has suffered or enjoyed, according as it departed from, or adhered to, the rules of health and prudence. (4.) It has possessed real power in proportion as its members were individually free and useful. (5.) It has decayed and perished, because its citizens were personally neglected or abused.

said regarding such a tribe? (3.) What is said about the profit of slaves?

X.—(1.) What took place when a tribe became stationary? (2.) In what did settlement consist?

XI.—(1.) Of what was settlement the beginning? (2.) What was a settled tribe? (3.) What here commenced? (4.) What did man here cease to depend upon? (5.) To what did he look?

XII.—(1.) What must we now do? (2.) What shall we understand by this means? (3.) What else shall we learn?

XIII.—(1.) What do we recollect? (2.) To what is it subject? (3.) What shall we find? (4.) How has a community possessed real power? (5.) Why has it decayed and perished?

CHAPTER VII.

SETTLED TRIBE-LIFE.

I.—(1.) In the earliest settled life of a tribe it enjoyed robust health and rude independence. (2.) Individuals were combined only through kindred and friendship. (3.) Each savage individual went hither or thither as he liked. (4.) He was responsible for his actions only to himself.

II.—(1.) In the beginning of tribe-life, property consisted of the individual's cabin, or tent, his arms, net, and clothing. (2.) To these were added, rude house implements and ornaments for his wife and children.

III.—(1.) The male members of the tribe went in companies to hunt or fish. (2.) All provision obtained was either consumed immediately, or kept in a common store for future use.

IV.—(1.) This combination of individuals was the simplest form of tribe-life. (2.) Individuals did not collect personal wealth, or property, in the form of cattle and land. (3.) The desire to accumulate did not cause rivalry between different individuals.

V.—(1.) The community depended for subsistence upon tilling the soil more than upon hunting and fishing. (2.) A division of responsibility here took place. (3.) The men went out in com-

I.—(1.) What did a tribe enjoy in its earliest settled life? (2.) How were individuals combined? (3.) What did each savage do? (4.) To whom was he responsible?

II.—(1.) Of what did property consist? (2.) What were added?

III.—(1.) What is said of the male members of a tribe? (2.) What was done with provision?

IV.—(1.) What was this combination? (2.) What is said about property? (3.) What was the effect of this?

V.—(1.) On what did the community mostly depend for subsistence? (2.) What took place? (3.) What did the men of such a community do?

panies to hunt or fight. (4.) The women prepared ground for seed and gathered in the harvest.

VI.—(1.) When the products of the chase and of the soil were collected, they were placed in store for future use. (2.) At stated seasons shares were distributed among all the different families of the community.

VII.—(1.) We find this form of tribe-life among savages of North and South America at the present day. (2.) They dwell in villages of huts, or tents, cultivate the soil, and hunt wild animals for food.

VIII.—(1.) In earliest tribe-life, all idea of ownership in property was confined to the bow and spear, clothing or armor of skins, and the hut or tent used for habitation. (2.) These articles of property were distinguished by some mark chosen by the owner. (3.) This mark might be the figure of a turtle, a snake, a tree, a bird, fish, or beast. (4.) By its use, on his clothing or person, one savage became known from another.

IX.—(1.) The dwelling of every savage was left in charge of the women. (2.) The women had care of children and domestic animals. (3.) Every man, in his own dwelling, was sovereign, and independent of all other men. (4.) Each savage exercised undisputed authority over his own family and dependents.

X.—(1.) All females occupied inferior or subject positions. (2.) They performed the hand-labor and domestic service. (3.) They

(4.) How did the women of such a community occupy themselves?

VI.—(1.) What was done with products of the chase and the soil? (2.) How were they afterward disposed?

VII.—(1.) What do we discover at the present day? (2.) What is their mode of life?

VIII.—(1.) To what was all idea of property confined? (2.) How were these articles distinguished? (3.) What might this mark be? (4.) Of what importance was such a mark?

IX.—(1.) Who had charge of every dwelling? (2.) Who took care of children and animals? (3.) What was every savage in his own dwelling? (4.) What did each exercise?

X.—(1.) What position did females occupy? (2.) What did they perform? (3.) What else is said concerning the labor of females, and their condition?

cultivated the ground, prepared food, and were the slaves of their male superiors. (4.) Their condition was rendered easier by the relations which they held as wives, mothers, sisters, and daughters.

XI.—(1.) The combination of a tribe, in this manner, secured almost entire independence to every individual. (2.) The right of each man to personal life and liberty was recognized. (3.) Every savage pursued his own happiness in the manner he deemed best.



CHAPTER VIII.

NATURAL EQUALITY.

I.—(1.) PERMANENT inferiority of one man to another was not known in earliest tribe-life. (2.) Rank or grade was not claimed except as it arose naturally from an individual's strength or talent.

II.—(1.) The most skillful hunter was a leader of the chase. (2.) The most valorous warrior was chief of a hostile expedition against a rival tribe. (3.) When hunting was over, or war ended, a leader or chief went back to his place among the rest.

III.—(1.) A savage community, existing in this form of simple independence and equality, was a healthy state. (2.) Independence and equality are natural elements of human society. (3.) Natural

(4.) By what relations was the condition of females rendered easier?

XI.—(1.) What did such a combination as this secure? (2.) What was recognized? (3.) What did every savage do?

I.—(1.) What was not known in earliest tribe-life? (2.) What was not claimed?

II.—(1.) Who was a leader of the chase? (2.) Who was chief in a war party? (3.) What became of him afterward?

III.—(1.) What was a savage community in this form? (2.) What are natural elements of human society? (3.) On what is natural independence?

independence is founded on an individual's consciousness of manhood. (4.) Natural equality is asserted by the natural dislike of one human being to be controlled by another human being.

IV.—(1.) Every individual in simple tribe-life was equal to another. (2.) No person claimed or exercised more authority than the whole community, or the people, might be willing to allow him.

V.—(1.) In such a simple tribe we find the earliest form of popular government or sovereignty of the people. (2.) All authority, wielded at certain times by a leader, was simply an authority allowed by consent of the whole tribe.

VI.—(1.) When a tribe deliberated, individuals came together as individuals. (2.) Speech or action was more or less independent, according to the personal character of a speaker or actor.

VII.—(1.) All the savages seated themselves on the ground, and entered into discussion according to ability. (2.) Wisdom, experience, eloquence, craft, or boldness, were thus developed. (3.) The influence of each man was measured by the power or attraction of his personal character.

VIII.—(1.) This popular combination, in a rude, savage tribe, was its mode of government. (2.) Independence of each member, and equality of one with another, were the features of such a government. (3.) The authority or power of the whole tribe, or people, was exercised by all together, or through persons selected by all.

IX.—(1.) A popular combination of this kind is known as

founded? (4.) In what manner is natural equality said to be asserted?

IV.—(1.) What was every individual in simple tribe life? (2.) What was the limit of personal authority?

V.—(1.) What do we find in such a tribe? (2.) What was the character of all individual authority?

VI.—(1.) How did the tribe meet to deliberate? (2.) What was the character of speech or action?

VII.—(1.) What did all the savages do? (2.) What were thus developed? (3.) How was each man's influence measured?

VIII.—(1.) What was the popular combination in a tribe? (3.) What were its features? (3.) How was authority exercised?

IX.—(1.) By what distinguishing name is such a popular combination known?

democracy. (2.) Democracy means the people's power, or popular sovereignty. (3.) The word "*democracy*" is derived from two Greek words, (*demos*) *δημος* i. e. "the people," and *kratos* (*κρατος*), *power*, or *krateo* (*κρατεω*), *to govern*. (4.) They signify, the *power* or *authority of the people*.

CHAPTER IX.

EARLY DEMOCRACY.

I.—(1.) SIMPLE democracy could be made practical only in a small tribe, or community. (2.) Its foundation was an agreement or consent of all the people to any course of action.

II.—(1.) It was not necessary that every individual member of the tribe should express his consent. (2.) The will, or voice of the larger number, or majority, and the consent or submission of the smaller number, or minority, was an agreement of the whole people.

III.—(1.) The democratic principle rested on a sovereignty of numbers, or majorities. (2.) It provided that a few should yield or agree to the expressed desire of many. (3.) It allowed every individual to be heard, for or against any measure or purpose, before it was decided.

IV.—(1.) In a council, or public meeting, every male member of a savage democracy claimed the right to take part. (2.) His

(2.) What is meant by Democracy? (3.) How is the word derived? (4.) What do these words signify?

I.—(1.) Where was simple democracy practical? (2.) What was its foundation?

II.—(1.) What was not necessary? (2.) What constituted a democratic agreement?

III.—(1.) On what did the democratic principle rest? (2.) What did it provide? (3.) What did it allow?

IV.—(1.) What did every male savage claim? (2.) What was his influence?

voice, or opinion, possessed influence just in proportion to his personal ability, or his popularity with others.

V.—(1.) Each individual savage submitted to the expressed will of the greatest number. (2.) This principle governs every democratic body, whether it meet in a savage village, or in a civilized city.

VI.—(1.) The origin of all assemblies of the people, as they now exist in communities, may be traced to savage tribe-life. (2.) All the warriors and hunters associated in council. (3.) They constituted, when together, a popular, law-making body. (4.) The old men of the tribe formed a smaller body. (5.) They represented the reflection and prudence of the whole community. (6.) They were called the Elders, or wise men, and exercised influence by reason of their experience.

VII.—(1.) The meeting of all the male members of the rude community was the basis of democracy, or popular rule. (2.) The more limited council of elders gave advice when necessary.

VIII.—(1.) Out of the two bodies a number of old men were selected, as agents. (2.) These agents carried measures into action, when agreed upon. (3.) The persons selected became temporary magistrates, or leaders. (4.) They performed only what was directed by the whole tribe. (5.) They administered the authority of the tribe. (6.) They constituted the first delegated government, or executive power.

IX.—(1.) All popular governments resemble this simple organiza-

V.—(1.) How did each individual act? (2.) What is said of this principle of submission?

VI.—(1.) What is said about assemblies of the people? (2.) What did all the warriors and hunters do? (3.) What did they constitute when together? (4.) What did the old men form? (5.) What did they represent? (6.) What were they called?

VII.—(1.) What was the basis of democracy? (2.) What was the council of Elders?

VIII.—(1.) What were selected? (2.) What did these agents do? (3.) What were they? (4.) What did they perform? (5.) What did they administer? (6.) What did they constitute?

IX.—(1.) What is here remarked concerning all popular governments?

tion of a savage, democratic tribe. (2.) The Roman popular meetings, or assemblies of the people, decided all measures of importance. (3.) They elected delegates or agents to administer their will. (4.) The Roman Senate was a body of elder citizens, selected on account of superior judgment, virtue, and experience. (5.) This body prepared regulations, and suggested measures, which the people adopted in their Assembly. (6.) The Roman tribunes, or consuls, were agents chosen to administer law and preserve order in the state.

X.—(1.) The earliest history of savage tribes shows that combined human individuals naturally establish popular or democratic bodies, to make and carry out their own regulations. (2) This indicates the natural and best form of government in larger states and nations.



CHAPTER X.

PARTIES IN A DEMOCRACY.

I.—(1.) We perceive that in early tribe-life each individual held himself the equal of another. (2.) We also see that all met in council, for exchange of independent opinions.

II.—(1.) When a tribe met to deliberate in the council, its members learned to understand one another's wishes and opinions. (2.) When they afterward mingled in war or hunting, the bonds of intimacy between individuals and families grew stronger.

(2.) What did the Roman assemblies decide? (3.) What did they elect? (4.) What was the Roman Senate? (5.) What did the Senate do? (6) Who were the Roman Tribunes, and what were their duties?

X.—(1.) What is shown by the earliest history of tribes? (2.) What does this indicate?

I.—(1.) What do we see in early tribe-life? (2.) What else do we see?

II.—(1.) What did men learn in council? (2.) What afterward took place?

III.—(1.) A feeling of friendship between man and man was fostered. (2.) They associated in danger and hardship, and experienced grief or joy in companionship. (3.) They learned to know and esteem each other in greater or less degrees.

IV.—(1.) In rude communities, this feeling of friendship was greatly stimulated. (2.) The brotherly intimacy of two or more individuals furnishes many interesting episodes of history. (3.) The friendship that existed between Jonathan and David is recorded in the Bible. (4.) This was no uncommon kind of association in early times. (5.) We read that pairs of Gallic youths bound their left wrists together with a chain, so that in battle, or even death, they might not be separated.

V.—(1.) A sentiment of friendship marked the intercourse, more or less, of all members of a savage tribe. (2.) They were accustomed to regard each other, and their own community, as superior to all stranger individuals or tribes.

VI.—(1.) This feeling of exclusive regard extended to the locality where a tribe dwelt. (2.) The people learned to love their habitations, fields and hunting-grounds. (3.) Here was founded the sentiment of *patriotism*. (4.) Patriotism means the affection that a person feels for his native country.

VII.—(1.) It was natural that certain individuals of a tribe should possess skill, bravery, generosity, and other attractive qualities, in a larger share than others. (2.) Such individuals grew to be highly esteemed by their associates. (3.) They gained the favor and confidence of their whole tribe.

III.—(1.) What was fostered? (2.) What did they do? (3.) What did they learn?

IV.—(1.) Where was this feeling stimulated? (2.) What is said about brotherly intercourse? (3.) What is recorded in the Bible? (4.) What is said respecting this? (5.) What do we read concerning Gallic youths?

V.—(1.) What was a feature of savage tribes? (2.) To what were their members accustomed?

VI.—(1.) Where did this feeling extend? (2.) What did the people learn? (3.) What was here founded? (4.) What does patriotism mean?

VII.—(1.) What was natural? (2.) What was the effect of this? (3.) What did they often gain?

VIII.—(1.) When the council of a tribe decided on any course of action, it became necessary to have agents to carry the decision into effect. (2.) The favorites of a tribe were selected as these agents. (3.) They became, for a time, leaders or captains of the tribe, to conduct any necessary action. (4.) They were assisted by as many hunters or warriors as the business required.

IX.—(1.) If a warlike expedition ended prosperously, its leaders become greater favorites than before. (2.) A habit of confidence in their abilities and respect for their opinions grew up among their companions.

X.—(1.) Favorite men in this way became leaders on various occasions. (2.) They could always count on devoted adherents. (3.) The independence of individuals was endangered through the personal respect inspired by such a leader.

XI.—(1.) The custom of deference and respect to a favorite led to a habit of obedience. (2.) Some were ready to support his authority as a superior, or chief. (3.) But a meeting of the people was still the foundation of all combined power. (4.) A leading savage was only looked upon as an equal among equals, in assemblies of the tribe.

XII.—(1.) A single man's popularity was not pleasing to all. (2.) Other able and ambitious men became more or less jealous of his influence over the tribe. (3.) These jealous individuals had their own admirers and adherents among members of the body-politic. (4.) One demagogue, or popular leader, became a check upon

VIII.—(1.) What became necessary? (2.) Who were chosen as agents? (3.) What did they become? (4.) How were they assisted?

IX.—(1.) What occurred after a prosperous expedition? (2.) What grew up?

X.—(1.) What did favorites become? (2.) On what could they always count? (3.) What was endangered?

XI.—(1.) To what did the custom of respect lead? (2.) What were some ready to do? (3.) What was the meeting of the people? (4.) How was a leading savage looked upon?

XII.—(1.) What is said of his popularity? (2.) Who were jealous of his influence? (3.) What is said of these other men? (4.) How did they operate?

another. (5.) The followers of one arrayed themselves in the council against the followers of another.

XIII.—(1.) This was the origin of parties, or factions, in a community. (2.) So long as their leaders contended only for the public good, no ill effects followed. (3.) When they were nearly equal in numbers, the power of one was a balance to the power of another.

XIV.—(1.) Free individuals, with independent judgment and opinions, always take sides on questions of policy. (2.) Every democratic or representative organization is distinguished by parties in opposition. (3.) Each party becomes watchful of the other. (4.) They help to maintain the balance of power that is necessary to public security.

XV.—(1.) Whenever one party, or faction, in a state, first sought to establish power by force, it became dangerous. (2.) When it succeeded in suppressing the independent action of any other party, the individuals lost their freedom. (3.) The state fell a prey to disease in the shape of absolute power or misrule.

(5.) What did the followers of various leaders in a democracy do?

XIII.—(1.) Of what was this the origin? (2.) Were these parties good or bad? (3.) How did they operate when nearly equal in numbers?

XIV.—(1.) What is said of free individuals? (2.) How are democratic organizations distinguished? (3.) What does each party become? (4.) How do they operate?

XV.—(1.) When did a party become dangerous? (2.) When did the individuals lose their freedom? (3.) To what did the state fall a prey?

CHAPTER XI.

A COMMONWEALTH OR REPUBLIC.

I.—(1.) EVERY individual in a popular or democratic tribe, felt an interest in the peril or welfare of every other individual member. (2.) A sentiment of common dependence and sympathy was reconciled with personal independence and freedom.

II.—(1.) A savage who injured another was held responsible by his tribe to the family of the aggrieved man. (2.) If the offence were one for which apology or amends could be made, the whole tribe tried to make peace. (3.) When compensation or punishment was demanded, the entire community enforced the claim.

III.—(1.) The matter was settled without written laws, and only by the popular expression of individual judgment. (2.) A savage body-politic was the guardian and guaranty of all its members. (3.) All persons were bound to preserve to each the right of life, liberty and happiness.

IV.—(1.) The interest that one individual shares with another in any community, is an interest in the commonwealth. (2.) The commonwealth means all that is required to give every man his natural rights as a member of the community.

V.—(1.) A commonwealth is otherwise known as a republic. (2.) All states governed more or less by the people themselves, are

I.—(1.) What did every individual in a popular tribe feel? (2.) What were reconciled?

II.—(1.) What is said of a savage who injured another? (2.) What was then done? (3.) What did the community enforce?

III.—(1.) How was the matter settled? (2.) What was a savage body-politic? (3.) What were all bound to do?

IV.—(1.) What is said of mutual interests? (2.) What is meant by the commonwealth?

V.—(1.) How is a commonwealth otherwise known? (2.) What are commonwealths or republics? (3.) What is a democratic republic? (4.) What

commonwealths or republics. (3.) A State in which authority comes directly from all the people, is a democratic commonwealth or republic. (4.) Every human individual is naturally a democrat and a republican.

VI.—(1.) As an individual, he is jealous of any assumption of authority on the part of another individual. (2.) As a democrat, he respects any power that is based upon mutual agreement of all the people.

VII.—(1.) As a republican, he feels an interest in the liberty and prosperity of his fellow-individuals. (2.) He recognizes the combined body-politic to be the guaranty of his own personal security

VIII.—(1.) The term *republic* is derived from a Latin word, *respublica*. (2.) It means *common* or *general* things or interests, *i. e.*, *commonwealth*. (3.) The original Greek derivative is *ta koina* (τα κοινὰ), signifying things or affairs of a community.

CHAPTER XII.

INDEPENDENCE OF A STATE.

I.—(1.) A SAVAGE democracy was an independent body-politic, sovereign in itself. (2.) It refused allegiance or respect to any other body-politic.

II.—(1.) It was liable to be attacked by the people of another tribe, stronger in arms or numbers. (2.) It might thus be reduced to enforced dependence or servitude.

is every human individual naturally?

VI.—(1.) How does man act, as an individual? (2.) What does he respect, as a democrat?

VII.—(1.) How does he feel, as a republican? (2.) What does he recognize?

VIII.—(1.) From what is the word *republic* derived? (2.) What does it mean? (3.) What does the original Greek word signify?

I.—(1.) What was a savage democracy? (2.) What did it refuse?

II.—(1.) To what was such a democracy liable? (2.) What might happen to it?

III.—(1.) Many savage communities have been destroyed in this manner, while in a democratic stage of progression. (2.) They perished in infancy, as a human individual is cut off when a child.

IV.—(1.) Other bodies politic survived and continued the development of social human existence. (2.) In following the progress of a single community, without regard to other combinations, we trace the course of civil society.

V.—(1.) We see the sentiment of friendship strengthened in a tribe by intimacy of association, under mutual trials and experiences. (2.) We find it ripened into a love of locality and birth-place, which is called patriotism.

VI.—(1.) The sentiments of friendship and patriotism related to fellow-members of the tribe and to the community itself. (2.) Opposite feelings were encouraged toward other men and communities.

VII.—(1.) A feeling of dislike or suspicion was felt toward individuals not belonging to the tribe. (2.) A contempt of the land occupied by obnoxious strangers was generally encouraged.

VIII.—(1.) A savage individual was inspired by kindly sentiments in his intercourse with savages of his own tribe. (2.) He formed ties of sympathy with them that could only be broken by death. (3.) On the other hand, he distrusted strangers; he regarded strange individuals and tribes as natural foes of himself and race.

IX.—(1.) The natural jealousy that every individual felt, regarding another's authority, protected his own independence. (2.) His

III.—(1.) What is said of many savage communities? (2.) When did they perish?

IV.—(1.) What survived? (2.) How shall we trace the progress of society?

V.—(1.) What do we see? (2.) What else do we find?

VI.—(1.) To what did the sentiments of friendship and patriotism relate? (2.) What is said of opposite feelings?

VII.—(1.) What was felt regarding foreigners? (2.) What other sentiment was encouraged?

VIII.—(1.) What is said of the intercourse of savages in their own tribe? (2.) What ties did each savage form? (3.) How did he look upon strangers?

IX.—(1.) How was the independence of an individual protected within his own tribe? (2.) How was his liberty secured?

claim to be an equal of any other man, secured his own personal liberty.

X.—(1.) The jealousy that one tribe felt toward another, maintained its own independence as a tribe. (2.) The pride of one tribe, in its own power or spirit, was a safeguard to its rude freedom.

XI.—(1.) The dislike or jealousy entertained by one savage tribe toward another tribe, caused a close combination of all the members of each community. (2.) This combination insured an independent separation of one tribe from another. (3.) By this means every independent community grew to be self-reliant and sovereign by itself.

XII.—(1.) When war arose, all the members of a tribe combined, as one man, to resist any hostile assault. (2.) Their union in this way gave them strength to withstand the attacks of a larger power.

XIII.—(1.) War was often the means of uniting the members of a tribe more closely in defence of each other. (2.) This prevented the destruction or dispersion of their community. (3.) War also caused one tribe to compete with another in gaining strength, skill, and wealth.

XIV.—(1.) The meeting of individuals with each other, in the popular councils of a tribe, was the means of strengthening their acquaintanceship and social relations. (2.) When they gathered for mutual defence against foreign force, their friendship for each other became enlarged into love of country.

X.—(1.) How was the independence of a tribe maintained? (2.) What is said of the pride of a savage tribe?

XI.—(1.) What did the dislike or jealousy of a tribe cause? (2.) What did the combination insure? (3.) What was the effect?

XII.—(1.) What effect had war on the members of an independent tribe? (2.) What was the effect of this union?

XIII.—(1.) Of what was war the means? (2.) What did this prevent? (3.) What did it also cause?

XIV.—(1.) What is said of popular meetings? (2.) What did their friendship afterward become?

XV.—(1.) The existence of one tribe separate from another, caused trade and other intercourse between them, as between individuals (2.) The separation often occasioned events that distinguished one community from another. (3.) These events were remembered and recorded as history.

XVI.—(1.) The rivalry of separate communities produced the same result as the competition of individuals. (2.) It preserved the independence of tribes, and occasioned incidents, to be recorded for the example of mankind.

XVII.—(1.) Individuals of a tribe were to learn by experience and observation, whatever was necessary for their ultimate welfare. (2.) Communities, or nations, were to profit by the experience and trials of other distinct communities, as recorded in history.

XVIII.—(1.) Different tribes were permitted by the Creator to grow up and become hostile to each other. (2.) The experiment of each one's life as a body-politic was thus tried independently, with its own members.

XIX.—(1.) Different forms of government were allowed to be instituted. (2.) They were to be proved good or bad by the experience of the people who established them.

XX.—(1.) The record of all governments and their effects upon public affairs, is before our own consideration, as students. (2.) We can examine them through the light of history, and thus learn to appreciate the best form of government.

XV.—(1.) What was caused by separate existence of tribes? (2.) What did this separation often occasion. (3.) What is said concerning history?

XVI.—(1.) What is said of the rivalry of separate communities? (2.) What was the consequence?

XVII.—(1.) What were individuals of a tribe destined to learn? (2.) How did communities resemble individuals in this particular?

XVIII.—(1.) How did the Creator permit communities to grow up? (2.) What was the design of God in permitting this?

XIX.—(1.) What were allowed to be instituted? (2.) What was to result from this independent action?

XX.—(1.) What is now before our consideration as students? (2.) How shall we examine this important matter?

CHAPTER XIII.

INCREASE OF WEALTH.

I.—(1.) An early savage democracy exhibited individualism, or personal independence, in agreement with combination. (2.) There was no positive regulation existing between members of the tribe, except a respect for natural rights.

II.—(1.) Personal bravery was relied upon as protection of personal security. (2.) When injuries were suffered, retaliation was allowed to the degree or amount of wrong inflicted.

III.—(1.) Property in a tribe accumulated by degrees through various means. (2.) It increased according to the activity of competition between individuals.

IV.—(1.) The common store, by which a combined tribe made provision for the wants of all its members, was a prudent measure while the community was small, like a single family. (2.) When numbers increased, each individual sought to provide for his own household.

V.—(1.) Competition then commenced between one man and another. (2.) Each tried to obtain, and to appropriate to his own use, whatever was regarded as wealth or property.

VI.—(1.) Corn and fruits were collected, cattle were raised, and clothing, arms and ornaments were accumulated. (2.) Each

I.—(1.) What was exhibited in an early savage democracy? (2.) Did any compact exist between members of a tribe?

II.—(1.) What was the protection for personal security? (2.) What is said of retaliation?

III.—(1.) How did property accumulate? (2.) How did it increase?

IV.—(1.) What is said regarding the common store? (2.) What took place afterward?

V.—(1.) What did each individual seek? (2.) What did each try to do?

VI.—(1.) What was the result of this competition? (2.) How was property distinguished?

collection was kept in the separate field or dwelling-place of the individual who collected it.

VII.—(1.) Every cabin became a store-house for the man and the family who occupied it. (2.) This or that ox, sheep, ass, weapon, or armor, was identified as the property of this or that individual (3.) It was guarded by his personal care from being appropriated by any other member of the tribe.

VIII.—(1.) The collection of articles for his own use by one savage excited the emulation of others. (2.) The desire to amass grew stronger as the practice of collecting continued.

IX.—(1.) One individual, by superior skill, or better fortune, was able to accumulate faster than another. (2.) He became the possessor of large numbers of cattle and quantities of goods.

X.—(1.) When individuals went out to war they often came back with spoils wrested from their defeated enemies. (2.) The victors were accustomed to divide their spoils among themselves.

XI.—(1.) Such spoils usually consisted of cattle, goods, and arms. (2.) Sometimes they comprised captives, taken in battle, or dragged from their homes. (3.) The captives were regarded as property, like cattle and armor, and were divided with other plunder.

XII.—(1.) The possession of slaves thus grew out of the settled life of a community. (2.) Enemies who would have been slain outright, or reserved for torture, by a tribe of hunters, were captured by a settled tribe, in order that they might be made servants.

VII.—(1.) What did every cabin become? (2.) What is said of property? (3.) How was it guarded?

VIII.—(1.) What is said of the collection of property? (2.) What of the desire to amass?

IX.—(1.) What followed the pursuit of wealth? (2.) What was the effect?

X.—(1.) What was the result of a warlike expedition? (2.) How were spoils divided?

XI.—(1.) Of what did these spoils usually consist? (2.) What else did they comprise? (3.) How were these regarded?

XII.—(1.) What is said about the possession of slaves? (2.) What about enemies?

XIII.—(1.) Each captive became a means of increasing the profit of a settled savage. (2.) He relieved his master of labor in the field and habitation.

XIV.—(1.) A soldier who returned with a captive either made him his own slave, or transferred him to another member of the tribe as a gift, or for a price. (2.) It soon grew customary to expose and sell prisoners in the streets or markets.

XV.—(1.) The dangerous influence of increasing wealth now began to be felt. (2.) It caused a disturbance of that equality which had previously existed between all members of the community.

XVI.—(1.) When plunder was divided among families whose males had taken part in a war expedition, the leader's share was usually larger than that of others. (2.) He thus had favors at his disposal to a greater extent than his fellows.

XVII.—(1.) Sometimes such a leader distributed his share among those whom he desired to attach to his interest. (2.) The recipients often became his personal adherents.

XVIII.—(1.) In this way wealth accumulated in the hands of a portion of the community who were more fortunate or more skillful than others. (2.) Plunder in war, increase of flocks, products of the soil, and captives, were continual sources of wealth to some individuals.

XIII.—(1.) Of what was every captive made a means? (2.) What did he do?

XIV.—(1.) How did traffic in slaves originate? (2.) What afterward became customary?

XV.—(1.) What was now felt in the savage community? (2.) What did it cause?

XVI.—(1.) What is said about a division of the plunder taken? (2.) What advantage would a leader thus have?

XVII.—(1.) What did a leader sometimes do? (2.) What was the effect?

XVIII.—(1.) What is said regarding wealth? (2.) What were the sources of wealth?

XIX.—(1.) There were other members of the community who lacked energy and skill, or were less fortunate than their fellows. (2.) These failed to gather so much property. (3.) They lived in the households of richer friends or relatives. (4.) They assisted the latter in cultivating the soil, manufacturing arms and clothing, watching herds, or building dwellings.

XX.—(1.) When captives were made slaves, the poor members of a savage democracy found themselves unnecessary to their richer fellow-citizens. (2.) This was because the labors of field and household were transferred to the slaves.

XXI.—(1.) Poor citizens were obliged to occupy, with their families, a position much like that of the slaves. (2.) The wealthy could remain idle, letting servants do all the work necessary for their support.

XXII.—(1.) Wealth in the hands of a few individuals was destructive of independent character in many who remained poor. (2.) Democratic sentiment, through which the people ordered all public affairs, began to decline. (3.) The power of riches possessed by ambitious men began to undermine popular power.

XXIII.—(1.) The combined strength of the community appeared to be greater, but only because its numbers were greater. (2.) Sympathy between individuals was weakened because rich and poor no longer counted on mutual friendship. (3.) Slaves multiplied, but were allowed no rights. (4.) Poor men multiplied, but their interests in the commonwealth decreased.

XIX.—(1.) Were all the members of a tribe thus wealthy? (2.) What is said of these? (3.) How did these subsist? (4.) How did the poorer class occupy themselves to procure a livelihood?

XX.—(1.) What was the effect of slavery on this poorer class of the community? (2.) Why was this?

XXI.—(1.) What position did the poorer citizens occupy? (2.) What could the wealthy do?

XXII.—(1.) What evils were now felt? (2.) What began to decline? (3.) What was undermined?

XXIII.—(1.) Was the combined community stronger at this period? (2.) How was the state injured? (3.) What is said of slaves? (4.) What of poor men?

XXIV.—(1.) The forced relation of master and slave placed one person entirely at the disposal of another. (2.) This contradicted the principle of equality formerly recognized between man and man.

XXV.—(1.) The labor of slaves, in household, and field, and market, was injurious to their owners. (2.) It allowed the latter to live in idleness, and to pursue only their own pleasures.

XXVI.—(1.) Owners of goods, houses, cattle, and slaves, were able to command labor and service from their destitute and dependent fellow-citizens. (2.) Unthrifty, or unfortunate men, were obliged to live precariously, without store for future necessities.

XXVII.—(1.) The body-politic no longer possessed a simple democratic character. (2.) Its members were divided into classes. (3.) There were rich citizens, poor citizens, and slaves.

XXVIII.—(1.) The independence of every single man had been the basis of democracy in the tribe. (2.) Democracy itself was the exercise of power by all the individuals of a tribe combined as equals.

XXIX.—(1.) The popular assembly or council of the community had been common ground for all. (2.) Each man there claimed his right to speak and have his opinions considered by his fellow-men.

XXX.—(1.) In war, or in the chase, every man of the tribe had

XXIV.—(1.) What was the effect of the relation of master and slave? (2.) What did this contradict?

XXV.—(1.) What is said concerning the labor of slaves? (2.) What did it allow?

XXVI.—(1.) What were owners of property able to do? (2.) What is said about other people?

XXVII.—(1.) What was the condition of the tribe at this stage? (2.) How were its members divided? (3.) What were these classes?

XXVIII.—(1.) What had been the basis of democracy? (2.) What was democracy?

XXIX.—(1.) What had been the character of the popular assembly? (2.) What did each man claim in the popular meeting?

XXX.—(1.) What other rights did the members of a tribe exercise?

participated, carrying into execution whatsoever the combined people resolved upon. (2.) The shares of honor and profit were equally distributed.

XXXI.—(1.) Now individual independence became outweighed by influence of wealth. (2.) In the popular assembly those who were dependent dared not assert equality with the rich. (3.) They either preserved silence, or echoed the voices of their patrons. (4.) In warlike expeditions, those only who could provide arms and support themselves, were allowed to share in the spoils of battle.



CHAPTER XIV.

GROWTH OF CLASSES.

I.—(1.) The democratic principle was based on a desire of each individual to be personally independent of others. (2.) This individual desire became now merged in a jealousy of class regarding class.

II.—(1.) The poorer citizens continued to maintain that equality was a just principle. (2.) They complained of their own poverty and of the possessions of their fellow democrats.

III.—(1.) The distinctions founded on possession of property in land now began to be recognized. (2.) Ownership of cattle and slaves became the measure of occupancy or apportionment of land.

(2.) What shares were equally distributed among the members?

XXXI.—(1.) What change now took place? (2.) How were the poorer people affected in the popular assembly? (3.) What did they do? (4.) What is said concerning warlike expeditions?

I.—(1.) What is said of the democratic principle? (2.) What about different classes?

II.—(1.) What did the poorer people do? (2.) Of what did they complain?

III.—(1.) What distinctions now began to be recognized? (2.) What is said about land occupancy?

IV.—(1.) In the earlier democracy every man who raised flocks and herds, permitted them to graze wherever good pasture was to be found. (2.) Cattle roamed here and there, under the care of sons, daughters or dependents.

V.—(1.) When planting and cultivating land became known, each individual, or a household, selected as much land as could be used by the force at command. (2.) Whatever crops were raised belonged to the cultivator or household.

VI.—(1.) When a household increased in numbers, its members occupied more land. (2.) When they added slaves, as laborers, they demanded still more for use. (3.) A small household, without slaves, was restricted in its use or possession of land, because unable to work it.

VII.—(1.) A family of increased numbers, comprising children, domestics and slaves, required still more land. (2.) Its members were powerful enough to occupy and keep for their own use a large proportion of the best grazing and planting land.

VIII.—(1.) Connection by marriage began to take place between families who owned the largest flocks and used the most land. (2.) This was done, in order that the wealth of each might be increased.

IX.—(1.) The members of a small household, or sons and daughters of domestics and other dependents, could only choose their marriage partners from families of their own condition. (2.) Such persons, therefore, did not increase their store of flocks or use of land by marriage.

IV.—(1) How did flocks and herds subsist in earlier times? (2.) Where did they graze?

V.—(1.) How was land occupied for agricultural purposes? (2.) What became of crops?

VI.—(1.) How did the occupation of land increase? (2.) How was it restricted?

VII.—(1.) How did land possession increase in some families? (2.) What were its members able to do?

VIII.—(1.) How did wealthy families combine with each other? (2.) What was the reason of this?

IX.—(1.) How did the small and weak families choose their partners in marriage? (2.) What was the consequence?

X.—(1.) A few families, increasing in number and power, were able to obtain possession, by constant use, of all the best land. (2.) This confined weaker families to that land only which remained.

XI.—(1.) The poorer people were compelled to labor on limited spaces of soil in order to support a few animals, or raise grain to sustain their own lives. (2.) When their families increased in numbers the land became insufficient for their support. (3.) They were obliged to give up what they worked for themselves, and to become dependents upon larger landholders. (4.) They then employed themselves in hand-labor, making clothing, arms, ornaments, and utensils, which they gave to the rich in exchange for provisions.

XII.—(1.) The poorer people thus became artisans, manufacturers, and laborers, in a tribe. (2.) Children of these persons were taught to follow the business of their parents. (3.) Poor families became connected by marriage and soon formed a separate class. (4.) Members of this class were only distinguished from the slaves by having a right to mingle in the popular meeting.

XIII.—(1.) In this meeting the voice of an artisan, shepherd, or domestic was still regarded to be of like weight with that of a man who held flocks and herds, and occupied large tracts of land. (2.) Large landholders, however, increased in power and influence. (3.) They claimed a social superiority over their fellow-democrats, founded on the possession of the best fields and chief wealth of their tribe. (5.) They left the cultivation of land to servants and slaves, and devoted their own days to sports, idleness, or other methods of dissipating time.

X.—(1.) What followed from this distinction? (2.) How were other families affected?

XI.—(1.) What was the condition of the poorer people? (2.) What followed? (3.) What were they then obliged to do? (4.) How did they then employ themselves?

XII.—(1.) What did the poorer people become? (2.) What is said of their children? (3.) How did they become connected, and what was formed thereby? (4.) How was this class distinguished from the slaves?

XIII.—(1.) What privilege did a poor freeman still retain? (2.) What is said of large landholders? (3.) What did they claim? (4.) How did they conduct themselves?

XIV.—(1.) Possession of land and the relations of mastership and servitude encroached upon individual independence. (2.) The body-politic had grown healthy through the independence of each member. (3.) It became diseased by the idle luxury of the rich and unprofitable toil of the poor.

XV.—(1.) Political equality and a true commonwealth of the people cannot exist with a separation of interests. (2.) Individual independence cannot continue where one class is held in contempt or regarded as inferior by another.



CHAPTER XV.

REPRESENTATION.

I.—(1.) At this period of a commonwealth, personal ambition began to display itself. (2.) More than one individual aspired to control, for selfish purposes, the power exercised by all the people.

II.—(1.) Sometimes one man, and sometimes another, through influence of gifts, or by attractive manners, succeeded in influencing his fellow-democrats. (2.) He gained followers who sustained his opinions in the meetings of the tribe.

III.—(1.) A popular man of this sort often induced the tribe to declare hostilities against other tribes. (2.) He was then selected, through the influence of his friends, to be a leader or chief in the expedition.

XIV.—(1.) How was the body politic affected thereby? (2.) How had it grown healthy? (3.) How did it become diseased?

XV.—(1.) What is said regarding political equality and a true commonwealth? (2.) What concerning individual independence?

I.—(1.) What began to display itself at this period? (2.) What is said of individuals?

II.—(1.) What was the result of this? (2.) What did such a man gain?

III.—(1.) What could a popular man do? (2.) How did he profit by this?

IV.—(1.) This sometimes awakened the jealousy of some other ambitious man, whose influence controlled another party. (2.) The two leaders then disputed for the ascendancy.

V.—(1) Each leader became the head of a faction of the community. (2.) The people, in supporting one or the other, forgot that neither of them possessed any real claim to authority.

VI.—(1.) Sometimes one of these ambitious leaders succeeded in gaining the support of the priests. (2.) He combined with them to control the whole community.

VII.—(1.) In such case the priests declared a man whom they supported to be appointed by the gods as a leader or chief of the tribe. (2.) They called upon all the people to follow his directions.

VIII.—(1.) If the people submitted quietly to this decision, the fortunate leader became chief, or governor of the tribe. (2.) He exercised powers, more or less arbitrary, over his fellows.

IX.—(1.) Sometimes an ambitious leader called upon the poorer class to sustain him against the rich. (2.) He promised the former a share in the lands and wealth of the latter, in return for obedience to himself.

X.—(1.) Leadership and chiefdom arose through various means, more or less violent. (2) It always grew out of a division of interests between individuals and classes. (3.) It was based on the decline of personal independence and political equality.

IV.—(1.) What followed such a course? (2.) What did the two leaders do?
V.—(1) What was each leader? (2.) What was the position of the community toward those men?

VI.—(1.) What sometimes happened? (2.) What was the result?

VII.—(1.) What was the course of the priests? (2.) What did they call upon the people to do?

VIII.—(1.) What occurred if the people submitted? (2.) What powers had he?

IX.—(1.) In what other way did an ambitious man operate? (2.) What did he promise?

X.—(1.) How was leadership gained? (2.) What did it grow from? (3) On what was it based?

XI.—(1.) The people were not always ready to yield themselves quietly to the guidance of a leader. (2.) They often resisted the projects of wealthy or ambitious men.

XII.—(1.) In such cases poorer citizens sustained each other in the popular meeting. (2.) They demanded that their numbers should be respected, and their rights acknowledged.

XIII.—(1.) When such a movement took place, class was arrayed openly against class. (2.) The wiser persons of the tribe saw a necessity of explaining the relations between citizens, whether poor or rich.

XIV.—(1.) The result was an agreement or compact made by all the tribe, assembled in public council. (2.) A method, or regulation, of power was adopted, with the consent of all.

XV.—(1.) By the agreement a limited number of individuals was selected from all the members of a tribe. (2.) These individuals became established, as a body, by themselves.

XVI.—(1.) Each party or class selected one or more from its number, to represent the wishes or claims of all. (2.) The persons selected were authorized to consult upon matters of interest to the whole tribe.

XVII.—(1.) The selected persons had power to decide what public action was necessary in regard to all classes. (2.) When a decision was made, the whole tribe assembled in popular meeting, to accept or to reject it by their voices.

XI.—(1.) Were the people always ready to submit? (2.) What did they often do?

XII.—(1.) What combination was then formed? (2.) What did they demand?

XIII.—(1.) What did such a movement occasion? (2.) What was found necessary?

XIV.—(1.) What was the consequence? (2.) What was adopted?

XV.—(1.) What did this agreement effect? (2.) What became established?

XVI.—(1.) How was this body constituted? (2.) What authority was given to it?

XVII.—(1.) What power had this representative council? (2.) What afterward took place?

XVIII.—(1.) This was the beginning of delegated authority, or popular representation. (2.) Each individual in the tribe gave up his personal right to state his own grievance, or to originate any action in the assembly.

XIX.—(1.) The people were, at first, tenacious of individual sovereignty, and only delegated a limited power to propose measures or regulations. (2.) They reserved to themselves the right to reject or accept all measures after they should be proposed.

XX.—(1.) This early method of representation was an effort of natural equality to assert itself. (2.) The people, as individuals, desired relief from injurious oppression.

XXI.—(1.) The body-politic became aware that disease was encroaching upon its life. (2.) It sought a remedy, by instituting a new action in the system.

XXII.—(1.) In choosing representatives, each class selected persons who were esteemed for wisdom and virtue. (2.) The first representative body chosen in a tribe comprised the bravest warriors and wisest old men. (3.) Such a body became justly honored for the ability and honesty of its members.

XXIII.—(1.) When the earliest democratic representation was formed in Greece, its members were distinguished by the title *aristos*, or *the best*. (2.) Their authority was termed *aristocracy*, from *aristos* [αριστος], the *best*, or *wisest*, and *krateo* [κρατῶ], to govern, or

XVIII.—(1.) Of what was this the beginning? (2.) What did each individual yield?

XIX.—(1.) How was the representative body restricted? (2.) What power was reserved to the people?

XX.—(1.) What is said concerning this first method of representation? (2.) What did the people desire?

XXI.—(1.) Of what did the body politic become aware? (2.) What did it seek?

XXII.—(1.) What was regarded most in choosing delegates? (2.) What did the first representative body comprise? (3.) What was the result of this?

XXIII.—(1.) What is said about the earliest democratic representation in Greece? (2.) What was their authority termed?

kratos [κρατος], power. (3.) The whole signified the power, or authority of the wisest or best citizens.

XXIV.—(1.) The aristocratic form of government was, at first, purely representative. (2.) It was delegated by the people, and was limited in its powers. (3.) The first aristocrats were representatives of all free individuals and of each class of the community.

XXV.—(1.) One or more of the old men represented the opinions and interests of all the elders dwelling in the tribe. (2.) One or more of the warriors represented the effective war-power of the community. (3.) One or more of the landholders represented the property-possessors of the tribe. (4.) One or more of the rustic or dependent class, represented the mass of the people not possessed of herds, slaves, or lands. (5.) One or more of the priests, represented the religious character of the community, or the interests of their gods.

XXVI.—(1.) The original savage democracy became first modified by the formation of such a limited deliberative body. (2.) Each interest, or division of the people, possessed its own exponents in the body of select or best men.

XXVII.—(1.) This original representative body, of the best and wisest, became afterward corrupted. (2.) It then gave place to an overbearing class of pretenders who called themselves aristocrats, or nobles.

(3.) What did the combination of words signify?

XXIV.—(1.) What was the original character of aristocratic government? (2.) How was it formed? (3.) What were the first aristocrats?

XXV.—(1.) What did the old men represent? (2.) What did warriors represent? (3.) What did landholders represent? (4.) What did rustics represent? (5.) What did priests represent?

XXVI.—(1.) What was modified? (2.) What did each interest possess?

XXVII.—(1.) What happened to this body of wise men? (2.) To what did it give place?

CHAPTER XVI.

EARLY ARISTOCRACY.

I.—(1.) REPRESENTATION of classes secured a consideration of various interests in the body of select wise men. (2.) It did not repress the ambition of popular leaders, or their influence over the people.

II.—(1.) All questions, after being agreed upon by the wise men, were submitted to the people's meeting for final determination. (2.) In the people's meeting, an ambitious man could oppose the wisest measures. (3.) If he were cunning and influential, he was able to cause their rejection by the people.

III.—(1.) This caused disagreement between the people and their representatives, and the latter were constantly changed. (2.) Wise men often gave place to ignorant and dishonest delegates, who cared more for personal than for public interests.

IV.—(1.) The wisest or best men of the community became outnumbered by the election of delegates of inferior character. (2.) The representative body grew corrupt and unscrupulous.

V.—(1.) A few cunning men exercised all power in the state. (2.) They were able to propose measures in the representative body. (3.) They could afterward influence a large party in the popular meetings.

I.—(1.) What did representation secure? (2.) What did it not do?

II.—(1.) What is said of public questions? (2.) What could an ambitious man do? (3.) What was he able to cause?

III.—(1.) What effect did such a course have? (2.) What result followed?

IV.—(1.) How did the wise representatives become outnumbered? (2.) What then took place?

V.—(1.) What did a few men then do? (2.) What were they able to propose? (3.) What further power had they?

VI.—(1.) These men increased their power by combining the priestly interest with that of the wealthy class. (2.) They combined these classes with that of the warriors, who defended the community against other tribes.

VII.—(1.) The community became thus divided into two principal orders. (2.) The first order comprised priests, landholders, and soldiers. (3.) The second was composed of all persons who did not possess property, but were obliged to labor. (4.) These two divisions formed the body-politic or freemen. (5.) The rest of the population were slaves without rights or privileges.

VIII.—(1.) The wealthy division possessing lands and slaves was independent of the other. (2.) The poorer division, composed of individuals more or less jealous of each other, occupied a dependent position. (3.) Many of the latter were ready to follow any leader, in the public meeting, who promised them favors. (4.) Ambitious leaders flattered their vanity, by calling them equal to the wealthier people.

IX.—(1.) The voices of this class were sometimes raised in support of a good man or measure. (2.) Again they were lifted in favor of a bad man or measure. (3.) The people were usually ignorant, and influenced by orators in the public meeting.

X.—(1.) The orators were men who could talk in an artful and popular style. (2.) The people listened to them and followed their advice.

XI.—(1.) When republics existed in Greece, such talking men were often found in the meetings of the people. (2.) These were

VI.—(1.) How did they increase their power? (2.) What else did they do?

VII.—(1.) How did the community become divided? (2.) What did the first order comprise? (3.) Who composed the second? (4.) What did the two divisions form? (5.) What is said of the remaining population?

VIII.—(1.) What is said of the wealthy division? (2.) What of the poorer? (3.) What were many of the latter ready to do? (4.) How were they influenced?

IX.—(1.) How were their voices raised at times? (2.) How at other times? (3.) What is said of the character of these persons?

X.—(1.) Who were the orators? (2.) How did the people regard them?

XI.—(1.) What were found in Grecian republics? (2.) What were such

called *demagogues*,—from two Greek words *δημός*, the people, and *ἀγωγός*, a leader. (3.) The whole signified *leaders of the people*.

XII.—(1.) When the people of a community became divided into two classes, the power soon passed into the hands of a few cunning men. (2.) These few proposed measures, and the representative body followed their directions.

XIII.—(1.) They took care to favor only those who were willing to obey them. (2.) When a captain was to be chosen for the soldiers, they proposed a man of their own party, devoted to their interest. (3.) They induced the people to choose such a captain.

XIV.—(1.) When such a leader returned from war, bringing captives and spoils, the soldiers, priests and rich men, were often disposed to make him chief, or ruler, of the tribe. (2.) This was because they knew he would be influenced by them.

XV.—(1.) They took advantage of his popularity with the people, because of his triumph over enemies. (2.) They proposed to the public assembly that he should be called their head man, judge, or king.

XVI.—(1.) The usual way in which a king was elected, was by the voices of all the people. (2.) In return, a chief was willing to give a share in the government to those who had proposed his election.

XVII.—(1.) He selected different men from the soldiers, the priests, and the land holders, and made them his assistants. (2.)

talking men called in Greece? (3.) What does this signify?

XII.—(1.) What followed the division of a community into classes? (2.) What did the few propose?

XIII.—(1.) What did the few influential men take care to do? (2.) What sort of captains did they propose for the soldiers? (3.) What did they then do?

XIV.—(1.) What were the combined classes often disposed to do? (2.) Why was this?

XV.—(1.) Of what did they take advantage? (2.) What did they propose?

XVI.—(1.) How was a king elected? (2.) What was the chief willing to do in return?

XVII.—(1.) What did the chief select? (2.) What did he call these assistants?

Some of them he called heads of his household, others captains of tens and captains of hundreds, others judges, and others keepers of his lands or flocks.

XVIII.—(1.) The chief, likewise, provided for sons, brothers, and other kindred, of his first favorites. (2.) He bestowed upon them gifts and employment. (3.) Their interests became united with his.

XIX.—(1.) The people learned to regard their chief as the source of honors and dignities in the commonwealth. (2.) An individual was considered to be more or less fortunate according as he was in favor with the king.

XX.—(1.) This was the beginning of the distinctions of rank or honor. (2.) Such distinctions afterward caused certain men to be called noble, and their class to be considered superior. (3.) The first persons of notability were those alone who represented the people. (4.) These persons afterward became powerful enough to set themselves above the people.

XXI.—(1.) The community no longer thought of delegating its own power. (2.) All classes desired to represent the power and favor of the king. (3.) Those nearest to him were considered the highest or best men. (4.) Every member of the community tried to win his approbation.

XXII.—(1.) The most numerous division of the people remained poor, and were obliged to labor for their daily bread. (2.) They continued to marry only among themselves, and brought up their children to their own condition.

XVIII.—(1.) What else did the chief do? (2.) How did he do this? (3.) What is said of these persons?

XIX.—(1.) What did the people learn? (2.) How was an individual considered?

XX.—(1.) Of what was this the beginning? (2.) What did they cause? (3.) What were the first nobles? (4.) What did these afterward become?

XXI.—(1.) Of what did the community no longer think? (2.) What did all classes desire? (3.) Who were considered as the best men? (4.) For what did each individual try?

XXII.—(1.) What is said of the most numerous class? (2.) What did they continue to do?

XXIII.—(1.) Sons of the king's favorites, or supporters, usually married daughters of their own class and associates. (2.) The distinctions between rich and poor grew wider with each generation.

XXIV.—(1.) Individuals who owned land, or served the king, or the altars of gods, constituted higher or ruling ranks. (2.) People who possessed nothing and lived by labor, sank into the lower or submissive population.

XXV.—(1.) One by one the rights of individuals were neglected and became forgotten. (2.) The people at large were no longer considered to have any interest in government. (3.) They were ranged under officers set over them by the higher classes. (4.) Laws were framed to protect the interests of the landholders and followers of the king.

CHAPTER XVII.

MONARCHY, OR KINGLY GOVERNMENT.

I.—(1.) WHEN a leader of soldiers was chosen king over his tribe, he relied naturally on the support of those who had been his comrades in battle. (2.) He increased the number of his military followers. (3.) Sometimes he hired the poorer individuals of his tribe to become soldiers.

II.—(1.) Wealthy members of the community provided arms, clothing, and food for the king's military followers. (2.) Persons who could only live by labor, were glad to become soldiers. (3.) They were then supported by the king with the money of rich men.

XXIII.—(1.) Who did the sons of favorites marry? (2.) What was the effect?

XXIV.—(1.) Who became the higher ranks? (2.) Who the lower?

XXV.—(1.) What is said of individual rights? (2.) What of the people at large? (3.) How were they ranged? (4.) What laws were framed?

I.—(1.) On whom did a king rely? (2.) What did he do? (3.) Who were hired to be soldiers?

II.—(1.) Who supported the soldiers? (2.) Who were glad to become soldiers? (3.) How were they then supported?

III.—(1.) When an army was collected, the king appointed its commanders. (2.) He selected these from his older soldiers, or from the sons and relations of wealthy people who paid the soldiers.

IV.—(1.) Favorites and friends of the king were thus placed in power over the people. (2.) These officials were answerable only to the king himself.

V.—(1.) When the army was led out to war, and other tribes were conquered, all lands and wealth taken from defeated communities, become property of the victors. (2.) They were divided among those persons whose money supported the king and soldiers.

VI.—(1.) Many captains and soldiers were also enriched with the wealth gained by warring in the service of their king. (2.) Some of these returned to their own community with slaves and treasures, and became landholders themselves.

VII.—(1.) When a hostile tribe was subdued, the victorious king added its soil, or country, to that of his own tribe. (2.) He obliged its members to send him certain gifts, in slaves and cattle, every year, in token of their subjection.

VIII.—(1.) The king appointed one of his friends, or captains, to rule over the subject tribe, as his lieutenant or representative. (2.) This individual became governor of the new community, and was answerable for his conduct only to the king who appointed him.

IX.—(1.) Every subject tribe was placed in charge of some friend of the king. (2.) Its members were obliged to obey the

III.—(1.) Who did the king appoint? (2.) How did he select them?

IV.—(1.) Who were thus placed over the people? (2.) To whom were they answerable?

V.—(1.) What is said of spoils taken in war? (2.) How were they divided?

VI.—(1.) Who were enriched by war? (2.) What did some of these do?

VII.—(1.) What was done with the country of another tribe? (2.) What were the conquered people obliged to pay?

VIII.—(1.) What appointment was made? (2.) To whom was such a governor answerable?

IX.—(1.) What is said of subject tribes? (2.) What of its members?

commands imposed upon them by their conquerors. (3.) Many were reduced to the condition of household slaves.

X.—(1.) By additions of subject tribes, a great nation was formed, under dominion of the single king. (2.) He governed the whole through inferior rulers, assisted by soldiers and priests. (3.) Sometimes one of the subject communities grew restless. (4.) Its members tried to shake off the oppressive rule of strangers. (5.) The king then collected an army from other tribes, and marched against the troublesome, or rebellious, tribe.

XI.—(1.) The authority of the king soon came to be regarded as the only real power in the state. (2.) His commands were received and obeyed on all occasions. (3.) He was considered to be the commander of the army and the head of religion. (4.) He took care not to offend the priests or rich men, for fear of losing their support.

XII.—(1.) The king's authority being respected, his body was considered sacred. (2.) A feeling of veneration was manifested in connection with the obedience rendered by his followers.

XIII.—(1.) This veneration was stimulated and encouraged by the priests. (2.) They were the king's chief supporters and the instructors of the people. (3.) They taught the community that its chief was under constant protection of their gods.

XIV.—(1.) The king was usually admitted to the priesthood (2.) He then exercised the functions of chief priest, as well as

(3.) What did some of these become?

X.—(1.) What was formed by adding subject tribes to the first community? (2.) How was such a nation governed? (3.) What sometimes occurred? (4.) What did its members do? (5.) What did the king do then?

XI.—(1.) How did the king's authority come to be regarded? (2.) How were his commands received? (3.) What was he considered to be? (4.) What care did he take?

XII.—(1.) How was the king's body considered? (2.) What feeling was shown?

XIII.—(1.) What is said of this feeling? (2.) What position did the priests hold? (3.) What did they teach the community?

XIV.—(1.) To what was the king usually admitted? (2.) What did he

chief ruler. (3.) He was looked upon by all ranks as the principal representative of the gods.

XV.—(1.) A feeling of *patriotism*, or a love of *country*, had been cherished by members of the democratic community. (2.) That feeling was now replaced by the sentiment of devotion to a *king*. (3.) The new feeling became known as *loyalty*.

XVI.—(1.) Soldiers and others were encouraged by their officers, and by the priests, to be *loyal* or true to their king. (2.) They were taught to regard it an honor to die in his service.

XVII.—(1.) The sentiment of loyalty for the king himself was afterward made to include all members of his family. (2.) The bodies of all the king's relatives were held to be sacred and worthy of respect.

XVIII.—(1.) The people became accustomed to believe that the king's power represented the power of their gods. (2.) They were commanded to receive all his words as laws, and to regard his officers as representatives of supreme authority.

XIX.—(1.) The king's eldest son was held to be next in honor after his father. (2.) Many persons regarded him as the rightful successor of his father, in governing the nation.

XX.—(1.) The ceremony of choosing a king by the people, or by governors of tribes, or captains of the army, was sometimes continued after the death of the first ruler. (2.) The choice usually

then exercise? (3.) How was he looked upon?

XV.—(1.) What is said about *patriotism*? (2.) How was this feeling changed? (3.) How did the new feeling become known?

XVI.—(1.) What were soldiers encouraged to be? (2.) What were they taught?

XVII.—(1.) How was the sentiment of loyalty extended? (2.) What is said of the king's relatives?

XVIII.—(1.) What did the people become accustomed to believe? (2.) What were they commanded?

XIX.—(1.) Who was held next in honor after the king? (2.) What did many persons regard him to be?

XX.—(1.) What ceremony was sometimes continued? (2.) On whom did the choice usually fall?

fell upon the deceased monarch's eldest son, or some favorite member of the royal family.

XXI.—(1.) When the office of king descended from father to son, without election, the royal authority was *hereditary*. (2.) It passed to the *heirs* of a family, in the manner that *land* or other property passes from one relative to another. (3.) The succession of a family was termed a *dynasty*. (4.) The period during which a king occupied his throne was called his *reign*.

XXII.—(1.) The name of king was given as a title of honor to the chief. (2.) Titles of honor were also bestowed upon the king's favorites and officers. (3.) These titles at first served to distinguish and compliment their possessors. (4.) They afterward came to be regarded as family distinctions. (5.) They were made hereditary, and descended from fathers to sons.

XXIII.—(1.) Equality of persons was no longer known in the community. (2.) Individual independence was replaced by universal veneration for one man. (3.) The common people of the nation were oppressed by a multitude of inferior officers. (4.) These officers derived their whole power, through various grades, from the king's will alone.

XXIV.—(1.) This was the political character of the most numerous and powerful nations of early history. (2.) The form of government was called a monarchy. (3.) Monarchy means the authority of a single ruler exercised in a greater or less degree

XXI.—(1.) When was the royal authority hereditary? (2.) How did it pass? (3.) What was the succession of a family called? (4.) What was the period of a single king's government called?

XXII.—(1.) Why was the name of king given to a chief? (2.) How were titles otherwise bestowed? (3.) What was the first design of these titles? (4.) How did they come to be regarded? (5.) What more is said about titles?

XXIII.—(1.) What was no longer known? (2.) What is said of individual independence? (3.) What of the common people? (4.) Whence did the officers derive their whole power?

XXIV.—(1.) Of what was this the political character? (2.) What was this form of government called? (3.) What is understood by monarchy?

(4.) Many great nations are governed in this way at the present day.

XXV.—(1.) All political governments may be comprehended under three heads. (2.) The first is *democracy*, the power of the people. (3.) The second is *aristocracy*, the power of *classes* of the people. (4.) The third is *monarchy*, the power of one person over the people.

XXVI.—(1.) These three kinds of political government are subdivided into several varieties. (2.) The difference between them consists in the number of rulers, and the amount or character of the power which is exercised.

CHAPTER XVIII.

EARLY LANGUAGE OF MANKIND.

I.—(1.) THE earliest society of individuals were assisted by experience and observation. (2.) The moral education of each proceeded from feeling and reasoning.

II.—(1.) Sensations of the body were caused by impressions upon the nerves. (2.) Mental emotions were distinct from bodily sensations.

III.—(1.) An individual either reposed in solitude, or mingled with his kind in quest of pleasure or subsistence. (2.) He became

(4.) What is said of monarchy in relation to the present day?

XXV.—(1.) How may all political governments be comprehended? (2.) What is the first? (3.) What is the second? (4.) What is the third?

XXVI.—(1.) What is said of these three kinds of political government? (2.) What constitutes the difference between such varieties.

I.—(1.) By what was the earliest society of mankind assisted? (2.) From what did moral education proceed?

II.—(1.) How were bodily sensations caused? (2.) What were distinct from these?

III.—(1.) What is said of an individual? (2.) Of what did he become aware?

aware of internal impressions, different from the effects of sight, hearing, touch, taste, or smell.

IV.—(1.) He grew conscious of certain natural operations in his mind. (2.) He experienced the emotions of wondering, of imagining, of hoping and of fearing. (3.) He began to reflect concerning uncertain objects and beings.

V.—(1.) The habit of memory collected a variety of single images in each individual's mind. (2.) The image of a tree, a river, a star, became familiar. (3.) He grew accustomed to compare the relations and associations of one with another.

VI.—(1.) Every sensation conveyed through a nerve was recognized, or perceived, by a mental faculty. (2.) It then became an *idea*, such as the *idea* of *light* or *sound*. (3.) The idea of *light* was perceived through the visual nerve, from a person's eye. (4.) The idea of *sound* was recognized through the aural nerve, from the ears. (5.) The *idea* of heat or cold was perceived through the nerves of sense or *touch*, from any part of the body.

VII.—(1.) When a sensation was *perceived*, it became a *perception*, or a *simple* idea. (2.) When it was *reflected* upon, it became a fixed image in the mind. (3.) It was then called a fixed or *complex* idea. (4.) The fixed perceptions of pleasure, of pain, of honor, and of existence were all complex ideas.

VIII.—(1.) By degrees every human individual became possessed of all the ideas that naturally arose out of sensation and perception.

IV.—(1.) Of what did he grow conscious? (2.) What did he experience? (3.) What did he begin to do?

V.—(1.) What is said of memory? (2.) What became familiar? (3.) To what did he grow accustomed?

VI.—(1.) What is said of every sensation? (2.) What did it then become? (3.) How was the idea of light perceived? (4.) How was the idea of sound recognized? (5.) How was the idea of heat or cold perceived?

VII.—(1.) What made a simple idea? (2.) What took place when a simple idea was reflected upon? (3.) What was it then called? (4.) Give examples of complex ideas?

VIII.—(1.) Of what did every human individual become possessed?

(2.) These related generally to objects about him and experiences of his actual daily life.

IX.—(1.) The voice or tongue of an individual at this period was used to express simple ideas in relation to objects around him. (2.) Speech, or conversation, was an effort to exchange reflections, between individuals. (3.) They compared ideas concerning what they observed and experienced.

X.—(1.) Human speech, at first, consisted of such vocal sounds as were required to distinguish one object from another. (2.) One sound of the human voice was employed to signify *a man*; another to denote animals, and a third to distinguish a tree. (3.) Members of the first family received the names or sounds which signified ideas from their patriarch. (4.) The words of all individuals, thus living together, formed a common stock understood by every person.

XI.—(1.) When emigrants separated from the family, one individual sometimes went westward, and another eastward. (2.) Each of these emigrants met new objects and experienced new sensations. (3.) Each emigrant gave different names to his new ideas. (4.) The two individuals were no longer able to compare their ideas because they were separated.

XII.—(1.) If a hundred families dispersed in various directions, and each family met with some new animal, each adopted a peculiar sound, or word to denote such animal. (2.) In this manner one hundred different words were invented to distinguish the

(2.) To what did these generally relate?

IX.—(1.) For what was the voice or tongue used? (2.) What is said of speech or conversation? (3.) What did individuals do?

X.—(1.) Of what did human speech at first consist? (2.) What is said concerning vocal sounds? (3.) How were names first received? (4.) What did these form?

XI.—(1.) What occurred when emigrants separated? (2.) What did each meet and experience? (3.) What did each do? (4.) What were the two unable to do?

XII.—(1.) What is said of a hundred families? (2.) What would be the effect of this?

same object. (3.) If the hundred families had remained together, one word would have explained the object to all of them.

XIII.—(1.) The early separation of families was always the cause of different languages. (2.) Every family, in wandering to new localities, was sure to meet with strange objects and experience new sensations. (3.) It became necessary to invent new sounds or words to express them all.

XIV.—(1.) Vocal sounds were invented to denote lions, serpents, swords, and the like. (2.) Other vocal sounds were adopted to express emotions of love, of hate, of admiration, of fear. (3.) In this way, every object met, or emotion experienced, by any human individual, received a name to distinguish it.

XV.—(1.) Families often separated and grew up into different tribes, and then came together once more. (2.) When this took place the various words in use by the scattered tribes became united in a common stock, for the new nation.

XVI.—(1.) The Arabian nation of the present day consists of many hundred wandering tribes, or families, who mingled and exchanged the original stocks of words. (2.) In the Arabic language there are more than five hundred words to signify a *lion*, two hundred to denote a *serpent*, and a thousand expressions, or names, for a *sword*.

XVII.—(1.) American savage tribes, living apart from each other, used many hundred different languages. (2.) If the tribes had come together in one nation, they would have had as many different names for an *arrow* as the Arabs have for a *sword*.

(3.) How would it have been if the hundred families had not separated?

XIII.—(1.) What caused different languages? (2.) With what did every family meet? (3.) What became necessary?

XIV.—(1.) What were invented? (2.) What else were adopted? (3.) What took place?

XV.—(1.) What often occurred? (2.) What then took place?

XVI.—(1.) What is said of the Arabian nation? (2.) What words are in the Arabic language?

XVII.—(1.) What is said of American tribes? (2.) What is said regarding these tribes?

XVIII.—(1.) The earliest individuals and communities learned to explain by vocal language whatever they thought about things seen and unseen. (2.) They invented expressions to describe love, hatred, cold, sleep, and death, and other images of the mind.

XIX.—(1.) They became accustomed to express the sentiment of veneration or worship. (2.) They used a word given by the first father to denote an Invisible Being who had created the world. (3.) They described the powers and qualities of this Being by other vocal sounds, signifying Highest, Holy, Lord, Master, and God.

XX.—(1.) All human language had its origin in the first sounds made by the human tongue. (2.) During the emigrations, wanderings, and settlements of our race, words and forms of speech continually multiplied. (3.) Their modifications and changes now express all shades of thought and capacities of feeling.

CHAPTER XIX.

EARLY RELIGION OF MANKIND.

I.—(1.) UNDER the instruction of patriarchal wisdom, the earliest human language was used to express each individual's devotion to his Creator, through praise and prayer. (2.) The direct continuation of the patriarchal system preserved in a single line of families the knowledge and adoration of One Supreme God.

II.—(1.) After the first emigrations from a patriarchal commu-

XVIII.—(1.) What did the earliest individuals learn to explain? (2.) What did they invent?

XIX.—(1.) What did they become accustomed to express? (2.) What word did they use? (3.) What else did they describe?

XX.—(1.) In what did human language have its origin? (2.) How did it grow? (3.) What is said regarding words and forms of speech?

I.—(1.) For what was human language at first used? (2.) What did the patriarchal system preserve?

II.—(1.) What occurred after the first emigrations of mankind?

nity, mankind soon dispersed in various climes, and wandered under different leaders. (2.) The early knowledge of unseen truths was lost by most of the nomadic tribes. (3.) The greater portion of all human individuals forgot the origin of their race.

III.—(1.) The vocal words, or sounds, adopted to signify a Supreme Being, remained still in use among different tribes. (2.) They became mingled with other expressions that obscured or contradicted their meaning.

IV.—(1.) These other expressions were first used by their framers to explain the powers and excellences of God. (2.) In course of time, their real meaning was covered over with human notions and fancies.

V.—(1.) The earliest individuals had given a name to the sun, to denote its cheering light and warmth. (2.) They had given other names to the moon and stars, to signify their beauty and usefulness in the night. (3.) They had bestowed another name on the earth, to describe its fruitfulness.

VI.—(1.) After the dispersion of mankind, in their wanderings, different families adopted different names to denote influences and appearances of sun, moon, and stars. (2.) Those names were afterward confused with each other. (3.) They also became confounded with words that described the Supreme Being.

VII.—(1.) When expressions grew thus confused, men endeavored to explain their meaning in various ways. (2.) Some persons said that many superior beings were described by words which, in reality, only alluded to qualities or influences of one Supreme Being.

(2.) What early knowledge was lost? (3.) What was forgotten?

III.—(1.) What remained in use? (2.) What is said of these?

IV.—(1.) For what had these expressions been originally used? (2.) What took place in course of time?

V.—(1.) What had the earliest individuals done? (2.) What else had they done? (3.) What else?

VI.—(1.) What occurred after the dispersion of families? (2.) What happened to those names? (3.) How were they otherwise confounded?

VII.—(1.) What was then sought? (2.) What did some say?

VIII.—(1.) These persons tried to account for the heavenly bodies, by imagining that they were under the care of angels or inferior gods. (2.) They said that one Supreme Being had appointed several watchers or guardians of the world.

IX.—(1.) Ignorant individuals and families were induced to pay veneration to the spirits or gods of the sun, moon, and stars. (2.) They prayed to them to obtain blessings for mankind from the Supreme Ruler. (3.) They carved images of the sun, moon, and stars on stones to remind each other of the gods that were said to live in those heavenly bodies.

X.—(1.) As time passed, persons began to think of other influences of the planets. (2.) They then fancied new spirits or invisible gods having charge of those influences.

XI.—(1.) When the sun parched the earth with its beams, or lightning consumed animals and trees, some persons said that the god of heat was angry. (2.) They pretended to regard fire, lightning, and thunder as so many gods, with power to harm them.

XII.—(1.) There were always such individuals, continually trying to account for everything they could not understand by fancying some spirit or god to be concealed behind it. (2.) Those individuals were looked upon by ignorant people as wiser than the rest.

XIII.—(1.) They tried to explain the wind to be under charge of an invisible god. (2.) They said that water was governed by another unseen deity. (3.) They declared that woods were filled

VIII.—(1.) How did they try to account for heavenly bodies? (2.) What did they say?

IX.—(1.) What were ignorant people led to do? (2.) For what did they pray? (3.) What else did they do?

X.—(1.) What occurred as time passed? (2.) What did they then fancy?

XI.—(1.) What did some persons say? (2.) What did these persons pretend to do?

XII.—(1.) What is said concerning such individuals? (2.) How were those individuals regarded?

XIII.—(1.) What did they try to explain? (2.) What did they say about water? (3.) What about woods?

with spirits. (4.) They gave names to hundreds of imaginary beings, and taught that all were to be revered as gods.

XIV.—(1.) The separation of families helped to multiply ideas about these false gods in the same way that names of visible objects were multiplied. (2.) Every tribe contained persons who tried to explain unknown things by their own fancies.

XV.—(1.) Another early practice assisted to spread false religion. (2.) This practice was the use of symbols, or written language.

XVI.—(1.) When human individuals lived together, they made themselves mutually understood by their vocal sounds, or speech. (2.) When they separated, and still wished to communicate with each other, they were obliged to invent a new method.

XVII.—(1.) This method was at first rude and simple, to carry out the purpose of its users. (2.) A person communicated the idea of a *tree*, by carving or marking the *figure* of a tree.

XVIII.—(1.) If a tree was to be cut down, the figures of a tree and an axe were marked. (2.) When hunting was to be described, a bow and arrows and some animal were marked, and *fishing* was expressed by a *net* and *fishes*.

XIX.—(1.) When *powers* or *qualities* of the Supreme Being were to be denoted, the figures, or symbols, were various. (2.) The superintendence of God was described by the picture of a star, or a dog, because the stars shine at night, and the dog is a watchful animal. (3.) To denote the superiority of God, a *lion* was painted,

(4.) What else did they do?

XIV.—(1.) What is said of the separation of families? (2.) What did every tribe contain?

XV.—(1.) What is said of another early practice? (2.) What was this?

XVI.—(1.) What would be done by families living together? (2.) What was necessary when they separated?

XVII.—(1.) What is said of this method? (2.) What did a person do?

XVIII.—(1.) What denoted cutting down a tree? (2.) How were hunting and fishing described?

XIX.—(1.) What is said concerning the Supreme Being? (2.) What described the superintendence of God? (3.) What denoted His superiority?

because a lion is the most powerful of beasts. (4.) To denote the control of God over waters, a *fish* and *star* were pictured. (5.) To denote Divine wisdom, a *serpent* was marked. (6.) Those figures were all marked with another figure that expressed the name of a Supreme Being ; this was generally a *circle*, because a circle has no beginning or end.

XX.—(1.) These symbols were carved or marked on wood and stones, with representations of sun, moon, lightning, fire, and whatever other objects the people chose to make. (2.) All such objects were intended to signify powers and qualities of a Supreme Ruler.

XXI.—(1.) In course of time, the figures of images, marked on stones or altars, were confounded with foolish ideas of gods and spirits. (2.) Ignorant people forgot that those figures only signified *powers* and *qualities* of One God. (3.) They began to regard each figure, as the picture, or likeness, of some good or evil spirit.

XXII.—(1.) Another form of idolatry grew up from the respect which men felt for brave hunters, warriors, or patriarchs. (2.) Many persons said that when such distinguished men died, they were placed in the stars, and made assistants of the gods. (3.) Some were supposed to have charge of tribes and villages of people. (4.) The ignorant raised altars to those departed heroes. (5.) Skillful carvers made images of them, and the people offered up prayers to such images.

XXIII.—(1.) Figures of dogs, oxen, lizards, snakes, monkeys,

(4.) How was His control over waters described? (5.) What described Divine wisdom? (6.) What usually described the Supreme Being's name?

XX.—(1.) What is said of these symbols? (2.) What were they all intended to signify?

XXI.—(1.) What occurred in course of time? (2.) What was forgotten? (3.) How was every figure regarded?

XXII.—(1.) From what did another form of idolatry grow up? (2.) What was said of these? (3.) What was supposed regarding some? (4.) What did the ignorant people do? (5.) What else was done?

XXIII.—(1.) How did various figures come at length to be considered?

and other animals, and also images of human beings, came to be revered as likenesses of gods. (2.) They were placed upon altars to receive sacrifices from the people. (3.) In this manner, some form of idolatry, or the worship of false gods, grew to be the religion of nearly every tribe.

XXIV.—(1.) Wheresoever any tribe wandered, individual members of it carried the images of their false gods, and set up altars for worship. (2.) Every sort of foolish and wicked idolatry was thus increased, till all but one nation abandoned the true worship of One God.

XXV.—(1.) This single nation consisted of patriarchal families, whose history is recorded in the Bible. (2.) Idolatry became the custom of all other communities, whether democratic, patriarchal, nomadic, or settled. (3.) Idols were attended, and false doctrines taught to the people, by numbers of individuals called wise men, or priests.

XXVI.—(1.) These priests, in the first place, were persons desirous of devoting themselves to objects of reverence. (2.) For this purpose, they made their dwelling-places near the altars or images of stone and wood.

XXVII.—(1.) The common people gathered around such persons, for instruction and counsel. (2.) People learned to look upon them as teachers and ministers of religion. (3.) They were allowed to set themselves apart from all other men, and were considered to be chosen ministers of the god whose image they attended.

XXVIII.—(1.) Many priests were willing to take advantage of respect paid them by the people. (2.) Some claimed venera-

(2.) What was done with them? (3.) What was the result of all this?

XXIV.—(1.) What is said of tribes? (2.) What was the consequence?

XXV.—(1.) What single nation remained constant to the true religion? (2.) What is said of idolatry? (3.) How were these idols attended?

XXVI.—(1.) What were these priests at first? (2.) What did they do?

XXVII.—(1.) What did the common people do? (2.) How did people learn to regard them? (3.) What were they allowed to do?

XXVIII.—(1.) What were many priests ready to do? (2.) What did some

tion on account of superior goodness and power. (3.) Others declared themselves specially appointed to explain the will of their gods.

XXIX.—(1.) Priests pretended to hold communication with invisible powers, and to speak for them to the people. (2.) They regulated the manner in which images should be worshipped, and the kind of offering required. (3.) Offerings of fruits, bread, meat and wine were brought to the priests, for sacrifice. (4.) Gifts of gold, jewels, and costly goods, were made to every altar or image.

XXX.—(1.) The priests were thus supported by the people, and looked upon as friends and confidants of the gods. (2.) A class of men so set apart, and favored, increased constantly in numbers, and acquired a great influence in every community.

CHAPTER XX.

THE ORIGIN OF NATIONS.

I.—(1.) THE earliest record of human history is preserved in the book called Genesis, in the Holy Bible. (2.) By this we learn that the first dwellers on earth were drowned by a great flood, in punishment of their wickedness.

II.—(1.) One family only was saved from the general destruction. (2.) This was the family of Noah, who escaped in an ark, or ship that he had built by command of God.

III.—(1.) Noah had three sons, whose names were Shem, Ham,

claim? (3.) What did others declare themselves appointed to do?

XXIX.—(1.) To what did these pretend? (2.) What did they regulate? (3.) What were brought to the priests? (4.) What gifts were made?

XXX.—(1.) How were priests supported and regarded? (2.) What is said concerning the class of priests?

I.—(1.) Where is the earliest record of human history? (2.) What do we learn by this?

II.—(1.) What was saved? (2.) Whose family was this?

III.—(1.) What were the names of the patriarch Noah's sons?

and Japhet. (2.) From these three, the nations of ancient times descended.

IV.—(1.) Several sons and grandsons of Japhet, the eldest of Noah's sons, became leaders of their families in various emigrations. (2.) These families increased into many tribes, and founded different nations in Europe.

V.—(1.) One of Shem's sons was named Ashur, who became leader of an emigration which settled the plains of Southern Asia. (2.) He is supposed to have founded the nation called Assyrians.

VI.—(1.) The sons of Ham dispersed to different parts of the earth, and founded many nations of Asia and Africa. (2.) One of these sons was Mizraim, who settled Egypt, and another was Canaan, who settled the land of Canaan.

VII.—(1.) Abram, the father of two great nations, was descended from Shem. (2.) He was a believer in the true God, whilst other families and tribes in his time were idolaters.

VIII.—(1.) Abram's first son was called Ishmael, who founded the Ishmaelitish tribe. (2.) This tribe branched out into many nomadic nations, afterward known as the Arabians.

IX.—(1.) Abram's second son was called Isaac, the father of Jacob the Patriarch. (2.) Jacob emigrated into Egypt with twelve sons, and founded the Hebrew people.

(2.) Who are descendants of these three sons of Noah?

IV.—(1.) What is said of Japhet's sons and grandsons? (2.) What is said of their families?

V.—(1.) What is said of Ashur? (2.) What nation is he supposed to have founded?

VI.—(1.) What did the sons of Ham do? (2.) What two sons of Ham are mentioned?

VII.—(1.) What descendant of Shem is here noticed? (2.) What was Abram's religion?

VIII.—(1.) Who was Abram's first son? (2.) What is said of Ishmael's tribe?

IX.—(1.) Who was Abram's second son? (2.) Where did Jacob go?

CHAPTER XXI.

HIERARCHAL AUTHORITY.

I.—(1.) WHEN a number of human individuals, or tribes, continued in settled life, their priests or religious teachers often became a ruling class. (2.) When this was the case, they made regulations to govern the people.

II.—(1.) Sometimes they selected one of their own number to be chief ruler, under the name of king or high-priest. (2.) At other times they appointed some distinguished soldier of the nation as chief, and made laws to regulate his conduct.

III.—(1.) Many powerful nations in ancient times were governed in this manner, by a priestly class. (2.) The members of such a class filled all the offices of state. (3.) They made laws, and were the king's counsellors. (4.) They were judges and teachers of the whole community.

IV.—(1.) When a priesthood appointed the king, and made laws, the form of government was known as a hierarchy. (2.) A hierarchy means a body or band of religious chiefs. (3.) They could exercise their influence either through monarchies or aristocracies.

V.—(1.) A hierarchy represented the supreme power of one or more gods. (2.) The form of hierarchy which governed the Hebrews, as recorded in the Bible, was called a *theocracy*. (3.) The Hebrew priesthood represented the commands of one Supreme God.

I.—(1.) What did priests often become? (2.) What then occurred?

II.—(1.) What did they sometimes do? (2.) What did they do at other times?

III.—(1.) What is said about a priestly class? (2.) What did its members do? (3.) What else? (4.) What were they, in the community?

IV.—(1.) What was the form of government called? (2.) What is meant by a hierarchy? (3.) What could they do?

V.—(1.) What did a hierarchy represent? (2.) What form of hierarchy governed the Hebrews? (3.) What did the Hebrew priesthood represent?

VI.—(1.) When the first parent exercised patriarchal authority over his descendants, he was also revered as their religious instructor or priest. (2.) He taught the members of his household that they were protected by one God who had created their father and mother after his own image.

VII.—(1.) The patriarch summoned his family at morning and evening, to impress upon them their duties toward the Supreme Being. (2.) He prayed aloud, and offered sacrifices in their presence. (3.) He implored the blessing of God upon each and all in proper undertakings.

VIII.—(1.) A patriarch was the mouthpiece of communication between his family and their creator. (2.) He held the relation of priest, or interpreter of religious knowledge to his children.

IX.—(1.) When the patriarch Noah was saved with his family from the Flood, that had drowned all other persons, he continued to exercise the patriarchal authority, and the duties of a priest. (2.) Afterward, the same authority was possessed by Abraham, Isaac and Jacob. (3.) The true religion, or worship of one God, was thus preserved in a line of families governed by the patriarchal system.

X.—(1.) Each successive head of the family was chief priest of all his descendants. (2.) This form of patriarchal government constituted a hierarchal monarchy. (3.) It continued till the descendants of Abraham were combined as the Hebrew nation.

VI.—(1.) How was the first parent revered? (2.) What did he teach?

VII.—(1.) What did the patriarch do? (2.) What further did he do? (3.) What did he implore?

VIII.—(1.) What position did a patriarch occupy? (2.) What relation did he hold?

IX.—(1.) What is said of the patriarch Noah? (2.) By whom was this authority afterward possessed? (3.) What was thus preserved?

X.—(1.) What was each head of the family? (2.) What did this form of government constitute? (3.) How long did it continue?

HIERARCHAL SYSTEMS OF GOVERNMENT.

CHAPTER I.

THEOCRACY OF THE HEBREWS.

I.—(1.) THE Hebrew community began in the household, or patriarchal body-politic, of which Abraham was the head. (2.) While Ishmael, the patriarch's first son, became a chief of the wandering tribe of the Arabians or Ishmaelites, the second son, Isaac, settled as a herdsman and agriculturist.

II.—(1.) Isaac's son, Jacob, left the land of the Canaanites, where Abraham had lived, and went down with his family of seventy persons, into Egypt. (2.) They made a settlement, and each of Jacob's twelve sons founded a distinct line of descendants.

III.—(1.) The Hebrews suffered much oppressive treatment from the Egyptians during several hundred years. (2.) They were afterward led out of Egypt by Moses, one of their chief men, under the direction of God himself.

IV.—(1.) The whole number of persons in the nation when they left Egypt, was six hundred thousand men with their families. (2.) Moses divided them into twelve tribes, each comprising the descendants of one of Jacob's sons.

I.—(1.) Where did the Hebrew community begin? (2.) What is said of Abraham's sons?

II.—(1.) Where did Isaac's son Jacob go? (2.) What was done there?

III.—(1.) What did the Hebrews suffer? (2.) What became of them?

IV.—(1.) How many individuals were led out of Egypt? (2.) How were they divided?

V.—(1.) After leaving Egypt, the Hebrews lived a nomadic life, wandering from place to place, with their cattle and tents, for forty years. (2.) Each tribe had its camp, and a chief or headman. (3.) Moses was general of the nation, and chief judge, deciding disputes between individuals, or between different tribes.

VI.—(1.) Moses subdivided each tribe of the Hebrews into thousands, hundreds, fifties and tens. (2.) Each thousand men selected their headman, or judge. (3.) Under the thousands, were chosen rulers of hundreds; lower still, rulers of fifties, and lowest, rulers of tens.

VII.—(1.) A ruler of ten heard simple complaints, where judgment was not too difficult. (2.) More serious matters were passed upon by higher rulers. (3.) Moses was respected as chief judge, and was considered to stand between the nation and God himself.

VIII.—(1.) When the Hebrews went out to battle, a military leader was appointed, to command the fighting men of each tribe. (2.) Moses selected a chief captain over the whole army. (3.) God himself was always thought to be the real leader of the Hebrews, and their general was supposed to be directed by heaven.

IX.—(1.) This mode of government continued while the Hebrew tribes journeyed through wildernesses in a nomadic state. (2.) The fighting men of the nation made war on other nations which they encountered. (3.) They conquered and took possession of a great part of the country occupied by Canaanites.

X.—(1.) They divided this country among the tribes, each tak-

V.—(1.) What then occurred to them? (2.) What did each tribe have? (3.) What was the position of Moses?

VI.—(1.) How did Moses subdivide the tribes? (2.) What did each thousand do? (3.) What were then chosen?

VII.—(1.) What is said of a ruler of ten? (2.) How were more serious matters determined? (3.) What is said of Moses?

VIII.—(1.) What took place when the Hebrews went to battle? (2.) What did Moses do? (3.) Who was thought to be the real leader of the Hebrews?

IX.—(1.) How long did this mode of government last? (2.) What did the fighting men do? (3.) Of what did they take possession?

X.—(1.) How did they divide the country of the Canaanite people?

ing a larger or a smaller portion, according to the number of its families. (2.) Every tribe then allotted its particular land among its own families.

XI.—(1.) There were about 600,000 families in the nation, and the land was divided so as to secure a farm of about twenty-five acres to each family. (2.) The owner of such a farm was allowed to lease, but forbidden to sell, his land.

XII.—(1.) While the Hebrews resided in Egypt, every father, or other head of a family, acted as the priest of his household. (2.) He offered up such prayers and sacrifices as he considered acceptable to God.

XIII.—(1.) After the tribes departed from Egypt, God commanded Moses, their leader, to appoint one high-priest for the whole nation. (2.) The first priest appointed was a brother of Moses, named Aaron.

XIV.—The office and authority of the high-priest were made hereditary, or descending from father to son. (2.) It was ordained that no one should succeed Aaron, as high-priest, unless he belonged to Aaron's family.

XV.—(1.) Forty-eight cities were allotted to the twelve tribes in the country of Canaan. (2.) Each tribe was represented in the nation by an elder, or chief man. (3.) The people in every city selected seven magistrates, to decide their differences.

XVI.—(1.) The family of the high-priest belonged to a small

(2.) What was done by each tribe with the land allotted to it?

XI.—(1.) What is said of the division of land? (2.) What was the owner permitted and forbidden?

XII.—(1.) Who acted as priests among the Hebrews in Egypt? (2.) What did he do?

XIII.—(1.) What was afterward commanded? (2.) Who was first appointed?

XIV.—(1.) What is said of the office of high-priest? (2.) What was ordained?

XV.—(1.) What is said about cities? (2.) How was each tribe represented in the nation? (3.) What did the people of each city select?

XVI.—(1.) To what chosen tribe was the high-priest obliged to belong?

tribe, descended from Levi, called Levites. (2.) The Levites were set apart as a holy, or sacerdotal tribe, to furnish the high-priests with assistants, in the service of God, and to supply teachers for the people.

XVII.—(1.) Levites were not allowed to live in cities apart from other Hebrews, but were scattered through all the cities and districts of the commonwealth. (2.) Every magistrate was required to associate with himself two Levites, called scribes. (3.) These scribes acted as councillors, and explained the laws that governed the nation.

XVIII.—(1.) Those laws were considered to have come directly from God, through Moses, the first chief of the nation. (2.) They could only be administered by the high-priest, and his subordinates, the Levites.

XIX.—(1.) During its earliest settlement in the country of Canaan, the Hebrew nation was a theocratic aristocracy. (2.) The high-priest was its head, as a representative of God's government. (3.) The tribes selected their own headmen, and appointed their own local magistrates.

XX.—(1.) The high-priest resided in the chief city of the commonwealth. (2.) The tribes sent their elders to that city, to act in connection with a number of Levites selected by the high-priest, as a national senate.

XXI.—(1.) The high-priest and senate composed a chief governing body. (2.) This body decided disputes that could not be settled in the tribes and cities. (3.) It had power to make peace or call the tribes to war on permission of the high-priest.

(2.) What is said concerning this particular tribe of Levites?

XVII.—(1.) Where did the Levites live? (2.) What was every magistrate required to do? (3.) How did the scribes act?

XVIII.—(1.) What is said of those laws? (2.) Who administered the laws?

XIX.—(1.) When was the Hebrew nation an aristocracy? (2.) Who was at its head? (3.) What part did the tribes have in the government?

XX.—(1.) Where did the high-priest reside? (2.) What did the tribes do?

XXI.—(1.) How was the chief governing body composed? (2.) What jurisdiction did it possess? (3.) What power did it have?

XXII.—(1.) God was always revered as the supreme political head of the nation. (2.) The senate was considered to speak the will of heaven, made known through the high-priest. (3.) All political and civil regulations were made in agreement with Levitical or sacred law.

XXIII.—(1.) The Levitical law directed the Hebrew people to visit their chief city three times a year. (2.) Once in seven years there was a great festival held there, called the Feast of Tabernacles. (3.) When assembled at this feast, the Hebrews lived in tabernacles, or tents.

XXIV.—(1.) The sacred laws were read and explained to the Hebrews, by their high-priest, at the Feast of Tents. (2.) Men, women and servants were commanded to remember these laws and obey them strictly.

XXV.—(1.) The Levitical laws were also taught by appointed persons, in every city, to all the children. (2.) They were thought to be the first and best knowledge for youth to possess.

XXVI.—(1.) On one day in seven, Levitical teachers called the Hebrews together in cities, towns, and other communities. (2.) This day was devoted to prayers and public instruction, and became known as the Sabbath day.

XXVII.—(1.) All sacred festivals were required to be held in the chief city. (2.) It was forbidden to offer sacrifice to God in any place except the temple in the chief city. (3.) The whole peo-

XXII.—(1.) How was God regarded by the Hebrew nation? (2.) How was the senate considered? (3.) What is said of all regulations?

XXIII.—(1.) What was directed by this law? (2.) What occurred once in seven years? (3.) What did the people live in, during this Feast?

XXIV.—(1.) How were the Hebrew laws explained? (2.) What was commanded?

XXV.—(1.) How were the laws taught? (2.) What were they thought to be?

XXVI.—(1.) What is said of one day in seven? (2.) To what was this day devoted, and what was it called?

XXVII.—(1.) Where were sacred festivals held? (2.) What was forbidden? (3.) What national characteristics did the people possess?

ple possessed one central city, or capital, one high-priest, and one temple. (4.) The twelve independent tribes were held thus together, as one nation. (5.) Religious laws and a common worship of God constituted their bond of union.

XXVIII.—(1.) The Hebrew *theocracy*, at this period, combined two forms of government. (2.) These were the *hierarchal*, or priestly, authority, and an aristocratic form of popular power. (3.) The twelve tribes constituted a *confederacy*, under one military leader and one religious head.

XXIX.—(1.) The united tribes continued to choose a chief, or general, in time of war. (2.) In peace, they were governed by their high-priest and senate. (3.) The generals were sometimes made chief judges, or principal magistrates, on account of their services to the nation.

XXX.—(1.) Judges continued to be chosen till the time of Samuel. (2.) Samuel desired to make the office hereditary, like that of the high-priest. (3.) He divided the commonwealth into two districts, each to be governed by one of his sons.

XXXI.—(1.) The sons of Samuel were corrupt in office, and sold their judgments for bribes. (2.) The tribes became dissatisfied, and demanded a king to rule over the nation.

XXXII.—(1.) Samuel was not in favor of monarchical government for the Hebrews. (2.) He thought the commonwealth would be stronger and healthier as a *theocratic* aristocracy.

XXXIII.—(1) Samuel asked advice of God, and was com-

(4.) How were the twelve tribes united? (5.) What was the uniting bond?

XXVIII.—(1.) What is said of the theocracy at this period? (2.) What were these forms? (3.) What did the twelve tribes constitute?

XXIX.—(1.) What did the tribes continue to do? (2.) How were they governed in time of peace? (3.) What were the generals sometimes made?

XXX.—(1.) How long did judges continue to be chosen? (2.) What did Samuel desire? (3.) What divisions did he make?

XXXI.—(1.) What is said of Samuel's sons? (2.) What was the consequence?

XXXII.—(1.) Of what was Samuel not in favor? (2.) What did he think?

XXXIII.—(1.) What course did Samuel pursue, and what followed?

manded to tell his countrymen that they would suffer greatly under kings. (2.) He was directed, at the same time, to comply with the wish of the tribes.

XXXIV.—(1.) He called a meeting of seventy elders of the people, and introduced to them a young Hebrew named Saul. (2.) This young man belonged to a poor family of the tribe of Benjamin.

XXXV.—(1.) Samuel directed the twelve tribes to cast lots, to decide from which tribe the ruler should be chosen. (2.) The lots were drawn, and the tribe of Benjamin gained the choice. (3.) All the families belonging to the tribe of Benjamin then cast lots, to decide from which family the king must be taken. (4.) The lot fell upon a family called the *Matri* family. (5.) All the male members of this *Matri* family then cast lots, to decide which of them should be king of Israel. (6.) The lot fell upon the young Hebrew Saul, who had previously been named by Samuel, under direction of God.

XXXVI.—(1.) Samuel gave up his own authority, as judge, into the hands of Saul. (2.) The high-priest and senate acknowledged Saul as military chief of the people. (3.) Saul became the first king of the Hebrews, and ruled as judge and commander till he was killed in battle.

XXXVII.—(1.) At Saul's death, another Hebrew chief named David, belonging to the tribe of Jesse, was set up by that tribe as king. (2.) Saul's son was afterward killed, and all the tribes acknowledged David as monarch.

(2.) What further direction did this prophet receive from God?

XXXIV.—(1.) What did Samuel then do? (2.) What is said of this young man?

XXXV.—(1.) What did Samuel direct the tribes to do? (2.) What tribe gained the choice? (3.) What was then done? (4.) What family was successful? (5.) Who next cast lots? (6.) On whom did the lot fall?

XXXVI.—(1.) What did Samuel then do? (2.) What was done by the high-priest and senate? (3.) What did Saul become?

XXXVII.—(1.) What took place at Saul's death? (2.) What was the consequence?

XXXVIII.—(1.) David made Jerusalem his chief city, and called it the city of David. (2.) The high-priest resided in that city, and the national senate met there on important occasions.

XXXIX.—(1.) King David caused the Hebrew people to be numbered and divided into three classes. (2.) The first class comprised Levites, the second citizens, the third strangers. (3.) From the class of strangers, servants and laborers were taken to perform work for the Hebrews.

XL.—(1.) Six thousand Levites were selected to be judges and scribes. (2.) The remaining members of the Levitical tribe were appointed to act as assistants of the high-priest, and teachers of the people.

XLI.—(1.) The army of the tribes was organized in twelve divisions, and a captain was set over each. (2.) The principal men of the Hebrews were selected to be rulers over cities and villages, collectors of revenue, and other officers.

XLII.—(1.) Solomon, the son of David, made alliances with many powerful kingdoms. (2.) David and Solomon extended their own territories by making war on neighboring nations. (3.) The simplicity of the commonwealth gave way to luxury and pride. (4.) Captives taken in war were reduced to servitude. (5.) Subject nations were made to pay tribute, or were cruelly treated.

XLIII.—(1.) When Solomon died, a civil war broke out, and the nation was split into two kingdoms. (2.) Two tribes continued

XXXVIII.—(1.) What did David do? (2.) What is said of that city?

XXXIX.—(1.) What was done with the Hebrew people? (2.) What did each of the three classes comprise? (3.) What were taken from the class of strangers?

XL.—(1.) Who were made judges and scribes? (2.) What became of the remaining Levites?

XLI.—(1.) How was the army organized? (2.) What is said of principal men?

XLII.—(1.) What did Solomon do? (2.) How were the Hebrew territories extended? (3.) What was the consequence? (4.) What was done with captives? (5.) How were subject nations treated?

XLIII.—(1.) What took place when Solomon died? (2.) What is said of two tribes?

to be governed by Solomon's descendants. (3.) The other ten tribes chose another king. (4.) The Hebrew people then formed two separate theocratic states. (5.) The two tribes became known as the kingdom of Judah, and the ten tribes composed the kingdom of Israel.

XLIV.—(1.) The kingdom of Israel continued to exist as a theocratic monarchy under the reigns of nineteen monarchs. (2.) It was at last conquered by the Assyrians, and its ten tribes were carried as captives beyond the borders of Syria. (3.) The kingdom of Judah remained a theocracy under the rule of twenty monarchs. (4.) It was at last overwhelmed by enemies, and its two tribes carried into captivity by the Assyrians.

XLV.—(1.) A Hebrew theocracy existed, whenever the people, as a nation, obeyed the Levitical or sacred law. (2.) Under this law, the high-priest and senate directed either the kingly or aristocratic government. (3.) When wicked kings were allowed to usurp power, the sacred laws and commands of God were disregarded. (4.) God then permitted the nation to become weak and distracted through foreign wars and domestic disorder.

XLVI.—(1.) When the kingdom of Judah was overthrown by the Assyrians, the principal Hebrews were carried away captive to Babylon, with their families. (2.) There they remained scattered, during seventy years. (3.) They were then released, and allowed to rebuild their city and temple.

XLVII.—(1.) After the captivity, public affairs were conducted

(3.) What of the other ten? (4.) What did the Hebrews then form? (5.) How were the separate states known?

XLIV.—(1.) How long did the theocratic monarchy of Israel last? (2.) What took place at last? (3.) How long did the theocracy of Judah exist? (4.) How was it ended?

XLV.—(1.) What is said of Hebrew theocracy? (2.) What body directed government under this law? (3.) What took place under wicked kings? (4.) What did God then permit?

XLVI.—(1.) What occurred when the kingdom of Judah was overthrown? (2.) How long did these families remain in captivity? (3.) What then became of them?

XLVII.—(1.) How were the Hebrews governed after their return from

by a succession of high-priests, assisted by military governors, until the death of Hyrcanus, the last of the priesthood. (2.) The real theocracy ended with Hyrcanus, and all power fell into the hands of rival chiefs, who contended against each other. (3.) Some of these styled themselves kings, and others priests, but most of them were oppressors of the nation. (4.) At last all political power passed away from the Hebrews, and their country became a province of the Roman empire.

XLVIII.—(1.) The Hebrews were driven away by foreigners from their own territory. (2.) They became a scattered people, and so remain at the present day. (3.) They still regard the Levitical laws as their religious rule, but submit to the civil government and laws of any country in which they live.

XLIX.—(1.) The history of Hebrew theocracy shows how a nation prospered when obedient to the laws of God. (2.) The troubles and final dispersion of the nation resulted from the wickedness of rulers and strifes among the people.

captivity? (2.) When did the real theocracy end, and what government succeeded? (3.) What is said of these rulers? (4.) What was the fate of Judah?

XLVIII.—(1.) What became of the Hebrews? (2.) What befell them? (3.) How are they now governed?

XLIX.—(1.) What does Hebrew history show? (2.) What is remarked concerning the nation?

CHAPTER II.

THE ETHIOPIAN HIERARCHY.

I.—(1.) THE ancient people known as Ethiopians, inhabited plains and mountains of Africa, above the land of Egypt. (2.) They were divided into fighting tribes, pastoral tribes, hunting tribes, and people dwelling in towns.

II.—(1.) The nation of Nubians lived nearest to the Egyptians, and possessed a religion resembling theirs. (2.) They were a settled people under dominion of the Egyptians. (3.) The civilized Ethiopians dwelt above the Nubians, on banks and islands of the Nile. (4.) They inhabited cities and towns, and were governed by a king and queen. (5.) They were divided into priests, merchants, farmers, artisans, and slaves.

III.—(1.) The civilized Ethiopians were known as the people of Meroe. (2.) Their chief city was the head-quarters of traffic with Arabians and wild tribes of Africa. (3.) Their merchants travelled into the deserts and mountains to trade with savage nations. (4.) Caravans of Arabs and other roving people visited the markets of Meroe to sell their goods, animals, and slaves.

IV.—(1.) The government of Meroe was hierarchal. (2.) The priesthood formed a ruling tribe, and selected from their own members the king. (3.) They pretended to do this under direction

I.—(1.) Where did the ancient Ethiopians live? (2.) How were they divided?

II.—(1.) What is said of the Nubians? (2.) Under what government did they live? (3.) Who dwelt above the Nubians? (4.) What is said of them? (5.) How were they divided?

III.—(1.) How were the civilized Ethiopians known? (2.) What was their chief city? (3.) What did their merchants do? (4.) What strangers visited Meroe?

IV.—(1.) What form of government had Meroe? (2.) What did the priesthood form? (3.) What did they pretend regarding the choice of king?

of their chief god. (4.) They asserted that the monarch stood in place of a god over the people.

V.—(1.) The king was highly venerated, but his power was regulated by ancient laws made by the priests. (2.) He was not allowed to reward or punish any subject without consulting the chief priests. (3.) When any criminal was judged deserving of death, an officer of the priests was sent to him with a command to kill himself. (4.) It was considered disgraceful to disobey such a command.

VI.—(1.) When the priests thought that a king had reigned long enough, they sent a messenger with an order for him to die, by direction of the gods. (2.) It was then the king's duty to put himself to death with his own hands.

VII.—(1.) The Ethiopian state of Meroe contained a military force of two hundred and fifty thousand soldiers. (2.) Its population comprised a half million of merchants and artisans.

VIII.—(1.) The hierarchy of Meroe extended its dominion over many tribes and small nations beyond its settled limits. (2.) The bonds connecting these different people were those of religion and traffic. (3.) Members of different tribes came from distant places to worship in the temples of Meroe. (4.) They brought productions of their countries to sell in the market of the city. (5.) These tribes were composed of independent families, like African tribes of the present day.

IX.—(1.) Savage tribes living near the sea-shore were fishermen. (2.) Those who inhabited grassy valleys and plains were

(4.) What did the Ethiopian priests teach?

V.—(1.) What is said of the king? (2.) What was he not allowed to do? (3.) What is said of criminals? (4.) What was considered disgraceful?

VI.—(1.) How was a king removed? (2.) What was then the king's duty?

VII.—(1.) How large an army had Meroe? (2.) What did its population comprise?

VIII.—(1.) How was the priestly dominion extended? (2.) What bonds connected all these people? (3.) For what did members of tribes come to Meroe? (4.) For what other purpose? (5.) How were these tribes composed?

IX.—(1.) What were tribes near the sea-shore? (2.) What were those on

herdsmen. (3.) Those who roamed in the forests were hunters. (4.) Those who lived near the rivers were more settled, and cultivated the earth.

X.—(1.) The military ranks of Meroe were originally Egyptian soldiers. (2.) They emigrated in a large army from their own country, and obtained a grant of land from the Ethiopian priesthood. (3.) They elected their own generals, but were subordinate to the hierarchy of Meroe.

XI.—(1.) The priests of Meroe exercised great influence by pretending that they heard the voices of their gods in the temples. (2.) These pretended voices were called oracles. (3.) Colonies of priests were often sent out to make settlements among distant tribes. (4.) Wherever they settled they set up altars and were supported by the people.

XII.—(1.) The Ethiopian priests were at first worshippers of the sun, moon and stars. (2.) They represented a star by the picture of a dog, to denote its watchfulness over the world. (3.) The sun and moon were represented by other figures or emblems.

XIII.—(1.) The first priests came from mountainous regions, and were of light color. (2.) They descended to the plains and valleys, where dark-complexioned tribes roved, and taught them religion and trade.

XIV.—(1.) They first set up stones or altars, to denote that the gods lived in high places. (2.) Superstitious people, of various

the plains? (3.) What were the forest tribes? (4.) What tribes formed settled communities?

X.—(1.) What were the soldiers of Meroe? (2.) What is said of them? (3.) What did they elect?

XI.—(1.) How did the priests exercise influence? (2.) What were these pretended voices called? (3.) What other means did the hierarchy adopt, to extend their power? (4.) What is said of these colonies?

XII.—(1.) What did the Ethiopian priests first worship? (2.) How did they represent a star? (3.) How did they represent the sun and moon?

XIII.—(1.) What is said concerning the first priests? (2.) What did they do?

XIV.—(1.) What did they first set up? (2.) What did the people do?

tribes, came from different parts, to bring gifts to the priests. (3.) Members of distant tribes grew acquainted with each other, and exchanged their presents. (4.) This was a beginning of trade or commerce. (5.) As it extended, the priestly settlements grew more numerous, and a town was built.

XV.—(1.) Persons who resembled the priests in color were made their assistants and first favorites. (2.) Those of darker complexion came to be regarded as inferior. (3.) Tribes of different complexions were afterward placed in distinct classes.

XVI.—(1.) The priests extended their authority, and combined several tribes into a nation. (2.) They were able to establish hierarchal government in Meroe, Egypt and other countries.

XVII.—(1.) At the present day there exist remains of the ancient hierarchy, as established in Meroe. (2.) A modern African state occupies the site of the ancient one, and is governed by a high pontiff, or prince-priest. (3.) Under this monarch the priests act as teachers and magistrates. (4.) The tribe is engaged in commerce, and its merchants travel in caravans to Arabia and through the African desert. (5.) Priests travel with the caravans, and are venerated by all the rude tribes.

XVIII.—(1.) Priests were the civilizers of many early nations. (2.) They planted colonies, which grew up to be flourishing states. (3.) Meroe and Ammoneum in Ethiopia, and Memphis, Thebes and Heliopolis, in Egypt, arose from the erection of a single altar.

XIX.—(1.) In such states the greater numbers were usually

(3.) What followed this? (4.) Of what was this a beginning? (5.) What was the effect?

XV.—(1.) Who were made the first favorites? (2.) Who were regarded as inferior? (3.) What was the consequence of this distinction?

XVI.—(1.) What did the priests accomplish? (2.) What were they able to do?

XVII.—(1.) What exist at the present day? (2.) What is said of a modern state? (3.) How do the priests act in this hierarchy? (4.) How is the tribe engaged? (5.) Who accompany the caravans?

XVIII.—(1.) What is remarked concerning priests? (2.) What did they do? (3.) What flourishing cities were founded by colonies of priests?

XIX.—(1.) What is said of such states as are here mentioned?

oppressed by the smaller class. (2.) False religion made the people superstitious (3.) The ruling classes of priests and soldiers reduced all working people to the condition of slaves.

CHAPTER III.

THE EGYPTIAN HIERARCHY.

I.—(1.) THE earliest inhabitants of Egypt were descendants of Mizraim, one of the grandsons of Noah. (2.) They lived in huts made of reeds, and were clothed with garments woven from grasses of the Nile. (3.) They subsisted on fish, and fruits that grew from the soil without culture.

II.—(1.) Improvement in the condition of these savage people was brought about by degrees. (2.) The priests who had taught the worship of planets in Ethiopia, descended to the land of Egypt. (3.) They planted colonies among the people, and taught them to raise altars and dwell in villages.

III.—(1.) The different tribes of Egypt learned to till the ground, to make canals, and to build houses and walls. (2.) The priests divided them into classes, and gave them various occupations. (3.) These occupations were such as could be followed best in the places which they inhabited.

IV.—(1.) The priests, and those who came with them into

(2.) What was the effect of false religion? (3.) What did the ruling classes do?

I.—(1.) Who were the earliest inhabitants of Egypt? (2.) What was their mode of life? (3.) On what did they subsist?

II.—(1.) How were improvements brought about? (2.) Who came to Egypt? (3.) What did these priests do?

III.—(1.) What did the tribes learn? (2.) How were they divided by the priests? (3.) What were their occupations?

IV.—(1.) What did the priests and their adherents now form?

Egypt, continued to form an exclusive tribe, or class, called a *caste*. (2.) They selected the most intelligent and courageous Egyptian tribes to be next to them in rank. (3.) They raised from these tribes a class, or *caste*, of soldiers, and made them defenders of the rest.

V.—(1.) The priests and soldiers became the superior classes. (2.) All other tribes were made working people. (3.) These last were subdivided into cultivators, fishermen, merchants, artisans, laborers and herdsmen.

VI.—(1.) When the priests became powerful, they divided the whole land of Egypt into districts. (2.) They settled a colony of priests in every district, to oversee and instruct the native people. (3.) Each of these priestly colonies established a temple, and made the superstitious people worshippers of their gods. (4.) They pretended that those gods were dwellers in the planets.

VII.—(1.) The original rude tribes of Egypt grew accustomed to look upon the priests and their teachings as sacred. (2.) By this means a union was brought about among tribes that were previously at war with each other.

VIII.—(1.) A combination, which afterward expanded into a great nation, was thus made by the priesthood. (2.) Several cities were built, and a numerous population settled around each of them. (3.) A majority of the nation labored with their hands, whilst the soldier tribe defended their cities against neighboring savages.

IX.—(1.) Many savage tribes roamed in the wildernesses around Egypt, and years elapsed before they were subdued. (2.) At length

(2.) What selection did they make? (3.) What did they raise?

V.—(1.) Who became the superior classes? (2.) What were all other classes? (3.) How were the last subdivided?

VI.—(1.) How did the priests divide Egypt? (2.) What did they settle in each district? (3.) What is said of these colonies? (4.) What did they pretend concerning the gods?

VII.—(1.) What is said of the original tribes? (2.) What was the result of this?

VIII.—(1.) What combination was made? (2.) What followed? (3.) What was the condition of the people?

IX.—(1.) What is said of savage tribes? (2.) What took place at length?

the states of Egypt became strongly established, and were consolidated as a nation under the hierarchy.

X.—(1.) The priestly caste chose a king from the soldier tribe, and placed him at the head of the nation. (2.) They associated with him a high-priest, whose sons were made his attendants and counsellors. (3.) The power of the king was restricted by the influence of his associate priests.

XI.—(1.) The native people of Egypt at first owned the land which they cultivated. (2.) Afterward the priests and kings obtained possession of it by purchase. (3.) They rented it out to farmers, and received an annual portion of the produce.

XII.—(1.) The priestly caste used their oracles, or divine voices, as means of governing the people. (2.) They pretended that these voices delivered laws from the gods.

XIII.—(1.) Wherever a settlement of priests was made, a portion of the land was set apart as their property. (2.) They rented this land to farmers, and obtained their living from its proceeds. (3.) Priests were judges, physicians, lecturers, architects, and practitioners of all arts and sciences then known.

XIV.—(1.) Every district had its principal temple, and the idols there kept were considered gods of the district. (2.) The Egyptian people and strangers from abroad brought offerings of various kinds to these temples, to obtain the favor of the priesthood.

XV.—(1.) The priesthood became the highest and wealthiest

X.—(1.) What chief ruler was constituted? (2.) Who was associated with the king? (3.) How was his power restricted?

XI.—(1.) What is said of the land in Egypt? (2.) What afterward occurred? (3.) What did the priests do with the land?

XII.—(1.) What is said of the oracles? (2.) What did the priests pretend?

XIII.—(1.) What was done in every colony of priests? (2.) What was done with such land? (3.) What were the occupations of priests?

XIV.—(1.) What did each district possess? (2.) What were brought to these temples?

XV.—(1.) What did the priesthood of the Egyptian nation become?

caste of the Egyptian nation. (2.) Its members filled civil offices and carried on the most lucrative branches of business.

XVI.—(1.) The warriors, or *soldier caste* of Egypt, were next in dignity. (2.) This caste was divided in two classes, under the names of *Hermotybi* and *Calasari*. (3.) The first class numbered 100,000, and the second 250,000 men.

XVII.—(1.) The monarchs of Egypt were always appointed from the soldier caste. (2.) The king was commander-in-chief of Egyptian warriors. (3.) His power in time of peace was restricted by the religious law taught by the priesthood.

XVIII.—(1.) The soldier caste was wealthy, owning large landed estates, like the priestly caste. (2.) Every soldier possessed twelve acres of land, which he rented to cultivators. (3.) One thousand warriors from the *Hermotybi*, and one thousand from the *Calasari*, were appointed every year, to be the king's bodyguard. (4.) They were allowed regular rations of bread, meat and drink.

XIX.—(1.) The soldier caste was not scattered through the different districts of Egypt, like the priestly caste. (2.) Its members lived in villages throughout a particular district, where land was divided for them. (3.) They left this district of their residence only in seasons of service.

XX.—(1.) The most considerable of the inferior Egyptian castes was that of the trading citizens. (2.) It comprised merchants,

(2.) What is said of the members of this priesthood?

XVI.—(1.) What caste was second in Egypt? (2.) How was it divided?

(3.) What were its numbers?

XVII.—(1.) From what caste were Egyptian monarchs always appointed? (2.) What military rank did the king hold? (3.) How was his civil power restricted?

XVIII.—(1.) What is said concerning the soldier caste? (2.) What did each soldier possess? (3.) What constituted the king's guard? (4.) What were allowed to these?

XIX.—(1.) In what respect did the priestly and warrior castes differ? (2.) Where did members of the latter reside? (3.) When did they leave this district?

XX.—(1.) What was the most respectable of the inferior castes? (2.) What

artists, mechanics and farmers. (3.) The sons of each individual were usually instructed to follow the occupation of their father.

XXI.—(1.) Another Egyptian caste was composed of persons known as *Navigators*. (2.) These were persons who dwelt on or near the river Nile and the various canals intersecting the country. (3.) They comprised the boatmen, fishermen, dyke builders, and ditchers of the land.

XXII.—(1.) Another caste of the Egyptians was known as that of *Interpreters* or *Brokers*. (2.) These were strangers, who intermarried with the natives. (3.) They instructed their children to speak Egyptian and foreign tongues.

XXIII.—(1.) The caste of herdsmen comprehended the native pastoral tribes who had charge of cattle and flocks. (2.) Some of these kept their herds in fields and pastures. (3.) Others were nomads, who wandered through the wilderness that bordered Egypt. (4.) The swineherds were the lowest inhabitants of Egypt, and consisted of a native tribe not allowed to enter towns or temples.

XXIV.—(1.) The priests possessed all sacred and historical writings of the Egyptians. (2.) They explained the laws and ordained religious ceremonies. (3.) Their laws imposed strict rules of life upon the kings.

XXV.—(1.) The king's daily duties of all kinds were fixed by law. (2.) Certain hours were specified for his sacrifices, his meals, his amusements, his studies, and his sleep. (3.) He was

did this caste comprise? (3.) What is said of the sons of individuals?

XXI.—(1.) What composed another caste? (2.) Who were these? (3.,) What did they comprise?

XXII.—(1.) How was another caste known? (2.) Who composed this class? (3.) How did they instruct their children?

XXIII.—(1.) What did the caste of herdsmen comprehend? (2.) How did some of these tribes keep their herds? (3.) What were others? (4.) What were the swineherds?

XXIV.—(1.) What did the priests possess? (2.) What did they do? (3.) What did these laws impose?

XXV.—(1.) What were fixed by law? (2.) What were specified? (3.,) What was the king forbidden?

forbidden to order punishments except in accordance with prescribed customs.

XXVI.—(1.) The priests understood astronomy, and pretended to interpret dreams, or foretell future events, by reading the stars. (2.) They exercised great influence, in this way, over a superstitious multitude. (3.) The king was not permitted to commence any undertaking without the sanction of oracles in the temples. (4.) The lowest Egyptians were accustomed to ask advice from their nearest priest on every important occasion.

XXVII.—(1.) All civil officers employed to keep records, collect revenues, or expend moneys, were required to be priests. (2.) The judges and pleaders before tribunals, were appointed from the sacerdotal caste. (3.) Magistrates in every city and village were selected from the priesthood.

XXVIII.—(1.) A national council, composed of thirty judges, had authority over all inferior officers. (2.) These constituted a high court of the nation. (3.) Ten of these judges were from the city of Memphis, ten from the city of Thebes, and ten from the city of Heliopolis. (4.) They were all sworn to be honest, and to deal justly. (5.) Their decisions were supreme and final, and became laws of the nation.

XXIX.—(1.) The Egyptian kings continued to succeed from the soldier class until a priest named Sethos seized the throne. (2.) This caused the soldier class to revolt, and Sethos took away their lands, which he distributed among the other *castes* that supported him.

XXVI.—(1.) What did the priests understand and pretend? (2.) What influence did they exercise? (3.) What was not permitted to the king? (4.) To what were the lowest Egyptians accustomed?

XXVII.—(1.) What was required of civil officers? (2.) What other officers were priests? (3.) Who were magistrates?

XXVIII.—(1.) What body had supreme authority? (2.) What did the thirty judges constitute? (3.) From what cities did the judges come? (4.) How were they sworn? (5.) What is said concerning their decisions?

XXIX.—(1.) What is said of a priest named Sethos? (2.) What followed this?

XXX.—(1.) When Sethos died, twelve chiefs of the soldier and merchant castes took possession of all authority, and formed a government, in connection with the priests. (2.) One of these chiefs hired foreign soldiers and overthrew the eleven others. (3.) He soon established a military despotism supported by foreign troops. (4.) The offended native soldier caste then emigrated from the country, and settled in Ethiopia. (5.) Civil war followed, and a king was elected by the foreign soldiers.

XXXI.—(1.) The priestly caste continued to be more or less powerful, but the throne was sustained by foreign mercenaries. (2.) The kings sent out armies, overran Syria, and held possession of the land of the Hebrews for a short period. (3.) Afterward Egypt was invaded by enemies, and the great city Thebes was captured by a Carthaginian army.

XXXII.—(1.) The land was afterward conquered by Cambyses, king of Persia. (2.) It was made subject to that despot, as a province, and governed by a ruler called a satrap. (3.) When the Macedonian conqueror, Alexander, became monarch of the Persian empire, he built a new Egyptian city, and called it Alexandria. (4.) This city grew to be the capital of Egypt, but the ancient city of Memphis was still venerated as the seat of the priesthood.

XXXIII.—(1.) The hierarchal monarchy of Egypt had then lasted thousands of years. (2.) When Alexandria became the chief city, its inhabitants were divided into three classes. (3.) Those in the first class were called Alexandrines, and comprised foreigners from all countries, but principally Grecians and Hebrews. (4.) The second were Egyptians, consisting of the priests and lower orders of

XXX.—(1.) What took place when Sethos died? (2.) What did one of these chiefs do? (3.) What was then established? (4.) What then took place? (5.) What follows?

XXXI.—(1.) What is said of the hierarchy? (2.) What did the kings do? (3.) What afterward occurred?

XXXII.—(1.) By whom was Egypt conquered? (2.) How was it governed? (3.) What did Alexander of Macedon do? (4.) What did this city become?

XXXIII.—(1.) How long had the hierarchal government lasted? (2.) How were the inhabitants of Alexandria divided? (3.) What is said of the first class? (4.) What of the second?

native citizens. (5.) The third class comprised all foreign soldiers in the service of the government. (6.) Persons outside of these were looked upon as slaves.

XXXIV.—(1.) The Grecians and Macedonians were numbered as citizens, and dwelt in all the wards of the city. (2.) The districts of Egypt were placed under separate governors, selected from the foreign citizens.

XXXV.—(1.) There were five magistrates in Alexandria—a Governor, a Chief Judge, a Register, and a Chief of Police. (2.) The priesthood, as a body, were deprived of all political power.

XXXVI.—(1.) After the death of Alexander, his military empire fell to pieces again. (2.) A Macedonian general, who was governor of Egypt, made himself an independent monarch of the country. (3.) His successors governed Egypt during three centuries. (4.) It was finally conquered by the Romans, and became a province of the Roman empire.

XXXVII.—(1.) We have seen how the great Ethiopian and Egyptian hierarchies arose, flourished, and fell. (2.) The original inhabitants lived in small tribes, under patriarchal chiefs. (3.) They were brought together by the influence of religious teachers. (4.) From a community of rude barbarians, the Egyptian state grew to be a flourishing empire. (5.) But the people were kept in subjection to a higher class, and they became superstitious and servile.

XXXVIII.—(1.) There was no commonwealth in Egypt, and

(5.) What of the third class? (6.) What were all other persons considered?

XXXIV.—(1.) How were Grecians and Macedonians numbered? (2.) How were the districts of Egypt governed?

XXXV.—(1.) What magistrates were in Alexandria? (2.) What befell the priesthood?

XXXVI.—(1.) What occurred after Alexander's death? (2.) Who made himself a monarch? (3.) What of his successors? (4.) What was the fate of Egypt?

XXXVII.—(1.) What have we seen? (2.) How did the original inhabitants live? (3.) How were they combined as a people? (4.) What is said of the Egyptian state? (5.) What is said of the people?

XXXVIII.—(1.) What is remarked concerning Egypt?

no intelligent love of country. (2.) Priests and native soldiers first oppressed the lower classes, and, afterward, despots and mercenaries took their place. (3.) The consequence was, that the Egyptian community became divided in itself, and military conquerors were able to overthrow the government. (4.) This has always been the fate of nations, where one class of the people claimed to be better than another class.

XXXIX.—(1.) We learn from the history of Egyptian government, that a hierarchal despotism, where the priests are supported by soldiers, must fall whenever the soldiers revolt. (2.) We also learn that when foreign armies are depended on, to support a government, the nation must soon sink under their power.

CHAPTER IV.

THE HINDU HIERARCHY

I.—(1.) THE first inhabitants of India lived in scattered families and small communities. (2.) The origin of the nation known as Hindus, was like that of the Ethiopians and Egyptians. (3.) Several barbarous tribes were combined under the influence of a more intelligent tribe.

II.—(1.) Members of the leading tribe became teachers and priests of the others, who formed the people. (2.) The bravest and strongest persons, in all the tribes, were set apart as soldiers and defenders of the rest.

(2.) Who oppressed the lower classes? (3.) What was the consequence? (4.) What is here remarked?

XXXIX.—(1.) What do we learn from the history of Egyptian governments? (2.) What further do we learn?

I.—(1.) What was the earliest mode of life in India? (2.) What is said of the origin of Hindus? (3.) What were combined?

II.—(1.) Who became teachers and priests? (2.) Who were set apart as soldiers?

III.—(1.) In this way, two divisions or classes of the nation were made superior to the remainder of the combined individuals. (2.) New divisions afterward arose out of difference in occupation.

IV.—(1.) The divisions became known as castes, like the classes of Egypt. (2.) The leading division was called the *caste* of *Brahmins*, or sacred class. (3.) All priests, teachers, lawyers, men of science, and officers of law, were taken from this caste. (4.) Its members were required by their religion to be virtuous, and to lead peaceable lives.

V.—(1.) The second class comprised the warriors, and was called the *Kyetra* caste. (2.) Kings, generals, and military governors, were taken from this caste.

VI.—(1.) The third class of Hindus was composed of farmers and traders, and was called the *Vaisu* caste. (2.) Members of the *Vaisu* caste could not be priests, but were allowed to read the religious books.

VII.—(1.) The fourth class of Hindus contained people engaged in various mechanical handicrafts. (2.) They lived with the higher classes, as their servants. (3.) This class was known as the *Soodra* caste.

VIII.—(1.) The lowest division of the Hindus comprised slaves and degraded persons, and was called the *Pariah* caste. (2.) Members of this caste were deprived of all privileges. (3.) They were forced to follow the meanest employments.

III.—(1.) What did this occasion? (2.) What afterward arose?

IV.—(1.) What name was given to these divisions? (2.) What was the leading division called? (3.) Who were taken from this caste? (4.) What was required of its members?

V.—(1.) What is said of the second class? (2.) Who were taken from this caste?

VI.—(1.) What of the third class of Hindus? (2.) What was forbidden to members of the third class, and what were they allowed?

VII.—(1.) What was the occupation of persons in the fourth class? (2.) What else did they do? (3.) What was this class called?

VIII.—(1.) What is said of the lowest division? (2.) Of what were its members deprived? (3.) What were they forced to do?

IX.—(1.) Mercantile and mechanical pursuits generally descended from family to family. (2.) A son succeeded to the business or handicraft of his father.

X.—(1.) Members of the *Soodra* caste were forbidden to marry out of their own caste. (2.) They were not allowed to read or to be taught anything, except to obey the upper classes as servants.

XI.—(1.) Foreigners and persons whose parents had unlawfully married out of their own castes, belonged to the Pariah caste. (2.) Persons degraded from other castes, on account of crime, were considered to be Pariahs.

XII.—(1.) The soldiers, or *Kyetra* caste, lived in communities on the borders of India. (2.) It was their duty to defend the country from invaders, and assist the priesthood, kings and generals.

XIII.—(1.) The *Brahmin* caste, or priesthood, extended throughout all India. (2.) Its members possessed lands wherever they resided. (3.) *Brahmins* were allowed to bear arms, like soldiers, and to engage in mercantile transactions of some kinds. (4.) They were strict in religious duties, and kept apart from all inferior Hindus.

XIV.—(1.) The monarch of the Hindu nation was called a Rajah. (2.) He was selected from the soldier caste, by direction of the Brahmins. (3.) He was chief of the army, and could make war, after consulting with the Brahmins of his council. (4.) His

IX.—(1.) What is said of certain pursuits? (2.) To what did a son succeed?

X.—(1.) What were members of the Soodra caste forbidden? (2.) How were they otherwise restricted?

XI.—(1.) What persons belonged to the Pariah caste? (2.) What other persons were considered Pariahs?

XII.—(1.) Where did the soldiers reside? (2.) What was their duty?

XIII.—(1.) What is said of the Brahmin caste? (2.) What did its members possess? (3.) What privileges had the Brahmins? (4.) What was their character?

XIV.—(1.) What was a Hindu monarch called? (2.) How was he appointed? (3.) What was his authority? (4.) In what was he restricted?

civil authority was restricted by the power of the priests, who filled all other offices of government.

XV.—(1.) The rajah's daily life was regulated by sacred laws written in the Brahminical books. (2.) He was obliged to reside in a retired palace or castle, with a wife selected from his own caste

XVI.—(1.) The rajah was assisted by a chief counsellor, who was usually a head Brahmin or high-priest. (2.) He also appointed a council of eight persons, with a director of foreign affairs, and a superintendent of internal affairs. (3.) All were taken from the caste of Brahmins.

XVII.—(1.) The director of foreign affairs took charge of ambassadors from other nations, and appointed agents and messengers to visit foreign lands. (2.) The director of internal affairs administered the revenues, and appointed collectors and other officers. (3.) Both these officers were under direction of the rajah and council of Brahmins.

XVIII.—(1.) The director of internal affairs named the headmen of villages or townships, and appointed commissioners to visit every district of the country. (2.) These commissioners examined into the way local magistrates performed their duty.

XIX.—(1.) The whole country was divided, for government purposes, into townships. (2.) Each township included a village and the farms around it. (3.) A headman was set over every township. (4.) Over ten towns a higher headman was placed;

XV.—(1.) How was the rajah's life regulated? (2.) What was he obliged to do?

XVI.—(1.) By whom was the rajah assisted? (2.) What other officers had he? (3.) From what were they all taken?

XVII.—(1.) What did the director of foreign affairs do? (2.) What did the director of internal affairs do? (3.) Under whose direction did these ministers act?

XVIII.—(1.) What were other powers of the director of internal affairs? (2.) What is said of the commissioners?

XIX.—(1.) How was the country divided? (2.) What was included in a township? (3.) Who was set over each? (4.) What other rulers are men-

over twenty, a superior ; and over a hundred, a still higher ruler. (5.) The highest headman was one appointed over a thousand townships.

XX.—(1.) The headman of a township reported to the headman of ten townships. (2.) The ruler of ten or twenty was responsible to the chief of a hundred. (3.) The chief of a hundred made his returns to the governor of a thousand.

XXI.—(1.) The headman of a single township was supported by the contributions of its inhabitants. (2.) These contributions consisted of food, drink, fuel and personal service. (3.) A headman of ten townships received for his share the produce of two acres of land (4.) The ruler of twenty townships enjoyed the fruits of five acres. (5.) The chief of a hundred townships was entitled to the revenue of one small township, and the governor of a thousand towns received the revenue of a large township.

XXII.—(1.) A Hindu township was a small state in itself (2.) The members of such a community were composed of farmers and traders. (3.) They had twelve officers and functionaries.

XXIII.—(1.) The first of the twelve was the headman or magistrate ; the second, town clerk ; and the third, town watch or constable. (2.) The fourth was a man to distribute water from the river, or public reservoir, to irrigate the fields. (3.) The fifth was an astronomer or calculator, who advised the people what days were lucky or unlucky.

tioned ? (5.) Over how many townships did the highest rule ?

XX.—(1.) To whom did a township headman report ? (2.) To whom was a ruler of ten responsible ? (3.) To whom did the chief of a hundred towns make return ?

XXI.—(1.) By whom was the headman of a single township supported ? (2.) What were these contributions ? (3.) What did the headman of ten townships receive ? (4.) What did the ruler of twenty get ? (5.) To what were the chiefs of a hundred and a thousand townships entitled ?

XXII.—(1.) What was each Hindu township ? (2.) Of what were its members composed ? (3.) What officers had they ?

XXIII.—(1.) What were the first three functionaries ? (2.) What was the fourth ? (3.) What was the fifth ?

XXIV.—(1.) The sixth town functionary was a cartwright, to make and repair the rude vehicles used. (2.) The seventh was a potter, who manufactured and mended earthen utensils. (3.) The eighth was a washerman, who cleaned the cotton garments of families. (4.) The ninth was a goldsmith, who made ornaments and offerings for the priests. (5.) The tenth was a barber, the eleventh a musician, and the twelfth was both schoolmaster and poet.

XXV.—(1.) These twelve functionaries subsisted on contributions made by the farmers and traffickers—the headman directing all. (2.) This simple division of labor and management was common to all the townships.

XXVI.—(1.) In the chief city of the Hindus, there were high officers corresponding to the inferior functionaries of townships. (2.) The rajah's chief minister was headman of the nation, under monarch and chief brahmins. (3.) There were a chief of punishment, or high-sheriff, and a chief gate-keeper, or warden of the kingdom. (4.) There were a chief advocate, or attorney-general, and a superintendent of instruction. (5.) There were a chief of police, a chief of agriculture, and a head chamberlain, or master of the horse.

XXVII.—(1.) The proprietors of land paid their taxes by giving an eighth part of their crops. (2.) The lands of the rajah and Brahmins were cultivated by servants taken from lower *castes*, or foreign-born slaves.

XXVIII.—(1.) Taxes were imposed on merchandise carried

XXIV.—(1.) What was the sixth town functionary? (2.) What was the seventh? (3.) What was the eighth? (4.) What was the ninth? (5.) What were the remaining three?

XXV.—(1.) How were these functionaries supported? (2.) What is said of this regulation?

XXVI.—(1.) What is said of higher officers? (2.) What was the rajah's minister? (3.) What chiefs are mentioned? (4.) Name others. (5.) What other officers are mentioned?

XXVII.—(1.) How did the landholders pay their taxes? (2.) Who cultivated the lands of the rajah and Brahmins?

XXVIII.—(1.) On what were taxes imposed by the Hindu government?

over public roads or rivers, and on manufactures sold in the public markets. (2.) The industrial classes generally paid their taxes in labor for the Brahmins.

XXIX.—(1.) The hierarchy issued laws, from time to time, to regulate trade in goods. (2.) These laws fixed the prices of all merchandise, and ordered five per cent. of the profits to be paid to government.

XXX.—(1.) The smaller communities of India were republican in effect, but all authority was fixed by custom and the laws of *caste*. (2.) The rajah was limited in his power by the same religious influence that regulated the headmen of towns in their jurisdiction.

XXXI.—(1.) The Hindus occupied a region of country that was separated from the rest of Asia by a great chain of mountains. (2.) The ocean bounded all other sides, but was not much used by the inhabitants for navigation.

XXXII.—(1.) Being separated from other nations, the Hindus lived quietly and prospered under their hierarchal form of government. (2.) The division of castes was taught by their religion, and members of lower orders submitted without complaint to political inferiority.

XXXIII.—(1.) The frame of government of the Hindu nation was very much like that of the Egyptian hierarchy. (2.) The *sacerdotal*, or priest caste, was the superior class, and religious laws regulated all powers of the king. (3.) Priests had charge over all legislation, appointments, and matters of learning and science.

(2.) How did the industrial classes pay their taxes?

XXIX.—(1.) What laws did the hierarchy issue? (2.) What did these laws ordain?

XXX.—(1.) What is said of Hindu communities? (2.) What of the rajah?

XXXI.—(1.) What is said of the Hindu country? (2.) How was it bounded?

XXXII.—(1.) What was the consequence of this separation of the land? (2.) What is said of the population?

XXXIII.—(1.) What did the Hindu frame of government resemble? (2.) What is remarked of its religion? (3.) What authority had the priesthood?

(4.) In both nations the soldier caste was next to that of the priests.

XXXIV.—(1.) The Hindus remained a peculiar nation while their hierarchal government continued. (2.) The three higher classes maintained their character as citizens, and the lower orders were always slaves. (3.) The country was invaded by Alexander the Great, and its northern inhabitants were forced to pay tribute. (4.) India was afterward conquered by different military monarchs and warlike tribes.

XXXV.—(1.) The Hindu state was not powerful enough to make long resistance against invaders. (2.) The lower classes possessed no rights to lose, and submitted to one master as readily as to another. (3.) Arabs and Tartars overthrew the hierarchic governments and established military monarchies.

XXXVI.—(1.) The Hindu hierarchal system was followed by a succession of despotic rajahs, who ruled the people with great severity. (2.) Finally, the country was conquered by the English, and it is now governed as a province of the British empire.

XXXVII.—(1.) The government of all hierarchal states was based upon inequality of condition between different classes. (2.) It was opposed to personal independence and the rights of individuals. (3.) It was a system of government which could not be permanent, or able to resist foreign enemies.

(4.) In what other respect were the two hierarchies similar?

XXXIV.—(1.) How did the Hindus remain? (2.) What is said of the castes? (3.) What took place? (4.) What afterward occurred?

XXXV.—(1.) What is said of the Hindu state? (2.) What of the lower classes? (3.) What was the consequence?

XXXVI.—(1.) What followed the hierarchy? (2.) What finally occurred?

XXXVII.—(1.) What is said of Hindu government? (2.) To what was it opposed? (3.) What is remarked of the hierarchal system?

CHAPTER V.

THE THEOCRACY OF THIBET.

I.—(1.) THE extensive country of Thibet, between China and India, is governed as a theocratic hierarchy. (2.) Its ruler is called the Grand Lama. (3.) He is supposed to be Boodh, the national god, in a human form.

II.—(1.) The worship of Boodh first flourished among the people of Thibet. (2.) It is now common among most of the nations dwelling in China, Tartary, and India.

III.—(1.) The followers of Boodh, in Thibet, believe that a being who once lived under that name became after death their chief god. (2.) He then returned to the earth in the body of a young child, and grew up to be the first Grand Lama of Thibet.

IV.—(1.) The Grand Lama is held to be supreme ruler of Thibet, but the country is under military protection of the Emperors of China. (2.) Under the Grand Lama are spiritual governors of provinces, who are called *hoo-took-toos*. (3.) The Grand Lama is supposed to be continually at prayer, and an officer called a *nomekhan* is chosen to perform the duties of chief ruler.

V.—(1.) Thibet is divided into two provinces, with a Chinese military governor over each. (2.) The two provinces are sub-divided into cantons, with a *hoo-took-too* over every canton.

I.—(1.) What is said of Thibet? (2.) What is the name of its ruler? (3.) What is he supposed to be?

II.—(1.) Where did the worship of Boodh first flourish? (2.) What is said of this worship?

III.—(1.) What do the followers of Boodh in Thibet believe? (2.) What else do they believe?

IV.—(1.) What authority exists in Thibet? (2.) What officers are subordinate to the Grand Lama? (3.) What is said of the *nomekhan*?

V.—(1.) How is Thibet divided? (2.) How are the provinces sub-divided?

VI.—(1.) The nomekhan and the hoo-took-toos are selected from the sacerdotal tribe of lamas, or priests. (2.) This priesthood is very numerous, and is the ruling class. (3.) All teachers, magistrates, and rulers, are taken from the class of lamas. (4.) Most of the lamas reside in large religious houses. (5.) One of those houses sometimes contains fifteen thousand lamas in a community.

VII.—(1.) Lamas are arranged in different ranks, according to the studies they have gone through. (2.) The principal lamas are heads of religious houses, and chief officers of government. (3.) They are supposed to be filled with divinity, like the Grand Lama himself.

VIII.—(1.) When a Grand Lama dies, the god Boodh is supposed to go into the body of another infant. (2.) The hoo-took-toos assemble in the principal city, with solemn ceremonies. (3.) The highest lama families then send in the names of their newborn infants. (4.) The assembly of hoo-took-toos choose three out of the number to be brought to the capital. (5.) They put slips, containing the names of the three babes, in an urn, and draw one out. (6.) The child having its name drawn, is declared to be the Grand Lama, and immediately worshipped as head of the nation.

IX.—(1.) The Chinese governors who reside in the provinces of Thibet are changed once in three years. (2.) All their subordinates and soldiers go back to China with them. (3.) The Emperor of China is a believer in the religion of Boodh, and protects the worship of the Grand Lama.

VI.—(1.) Who are the nomekhan and hoo-took-toos selected? (2.) What is said of the priesthood, or lamas? (3.) What are taken from this class? (4.) Where do most of the lamas reside? (5.) What is said of those houses?

VII.—(1.) How are lamas arranged? (2.) What are the principal priests? (3.) What is thought of them?

VIII.—(1.) What is supposed when a Grand Lama dies? (2.) What do the hoo-took-toos do? (3.) What is done by the highest lama families? (4.) What is done by the assembly of hoo-took-toos? (5.) How is this choice proceeded with? (6.) What is the result?

IX.—(1.) What is said of the Chinese governors? (2.) Who return with them to China? (3.) What is said of the Emperor of China?

CHAPTER VI.

THE ROMAN HIERARCHAL MONARCHY.

I.—(1.) AFTER the establishment of Christianity, members of Christian communities formed combinations called churches. (2.) Churches were divided into smaller assemblies, with a priest or deacon over each. (3.) Over the priests there was chosen a higher priest, called the bishop. (4.) A certain number of bishops were placed under the direction of a still superior priest, who was called the archbishop.

II.—(1.) The bishop, who lived at Rome, received the name of Pope, which means father. (2.) Another bishop, who lived at Constantinople, was called the patriarch. (3.) Afterward the believers of the Christian religion became separated into two opposite churches. (4.) The Christians whose head, or father, resided at Constantinople, have been since known as the Greek church. (5.) The Russian people all belong to this Greek church.

III.—(1.) The followers of Christianity whose bishop, or father, resided at Rome, have been always known as the Roman church. (2.) Nearly all civilized people were followers of the Roman church during the middle ages. (3.) The popes and chief bishops of this church constitute the Roman hierarchy.

IV.—(1.) The earliest Christian bishops did not exercise authority over government affairs, but were religious fathers or chief

I.—(1.) What was done by members of Christian communities? (2.) How were churches divided? (3.) Who was chosen to preside over the priests and deacons? (4.) Who were the bishops placed under?

II.—(1.) What is said of a bishop who lives at Rome? (2.) What of another bishop? (3.) What afterward occurred? (4.) What is said of a portion of these? (5.) What people belong to the Greek church?

III.—(1.) What is said of another body of Christians? (2.) What people followed the Roman church? (3.) Who constitute the Roman hierarchy?

IV.—(1.) What is said concerning the earliest known Christian bishops?

priests of the churches. (2.) The Emperor Charlemagne gave the city of Rome and other territories to a bishop named Leon, to govern them as his kingdom. (3.) Leon and his successors paid an annual tribute to the emperor, in return for their possessions. (4.) Afterward, the popes became independent temporal sovereigns.

V.—(1.) The territories now governed by the Roman hierarchy consist of several Italian provinces called the Papal States. (2.) These are divided, politically, into twenty districts. (3.) The city of Rome is the capital, and has a governor who acts under the hierarchy. (4.) There are seven provincial governments called delegations, with a ruler over each, who is appointed by the pope, as his delegate. (5.) The remaining twelve provincial governments are called legations, and each has a ruler appointed by the pope, called a legate.

VI.—(1.) The hierarchy is constituted from an aristocracy of chief priests called cardinals. (2.) The cardinals are associated in a religious senate called the Sacred College. (3.) The number of cardinals is limited to seventy, and all vacancies are filled by appointment of the pope. (4.) A president of the Sacred College of Cardinals is chosen for life, and is called the Cardinal-Chancellor.

VII.—(1.) The pope is elected for life, and when he dies, the Cardinal-Chancellor occupies his place, and summons the College of Cardinals to assemble at Rome. (2.) The Sacred College meet to choose a successor on the tenth day, from one of their own number. (3.) A majority of two-thirds of the seventy is required to agree upon the choice.

(2.) What did the Emperor Charlemagne do? (3.) What followed? (4.) What afterward took place?

V.—(1.) Of what do the Roman hierarchy's territories consist? (2.) How are they politically divided? (3.) What is said of the city of Rome? (4.) What of the governments called delegations? (5.) What is said of the remaining twelve?

VI.—(1.) From what is the hierarchy constituted? (2.) How are the cardinals associated? (3.) What is the number of cardinals? (4.) What is said of the Cardinal-Chancellor?

VII.—(1.) What is said regarding the pope? (2.) What does the Sacred College do? (3.) What is required?

VIII.—(1.) The pope is assisted in his government by a Cardinal-Secretary of State, who is chief minister. (2.) A board of cardinals is appointed to preside over each department of public affairs.

IX.—(1.) Every provincial government is administered by a delegate or legate, and a council. (2.) The council consists of an officer called a gonfalonier and four counsellors. (3.) The gonfalonier is chosen by the people of his district, and the four counsellors are named by the pope, to serve five years.

X.—(1.) The provinces are sub-divided into districts, over each of which a sub-governor is appointed. (2.) These sub-governors are judges of all civil cases affecting property under a certain amount. (3.) They determine minor criminal causes, subject to examination by a higher tribunal called the Collegiate Court. (4.) The Collegiate Court is composed of the pope's delegate and a board of officers.

XI.—(1.) There are three courts superior to the Collegiate Courts of provinces. (2.) These three courts sit at three principal cities, and examine the decisions of inferior tribunals. (3.) There is also a Supreme Court of Cardinals at Rome. (4.) All judges and other civil officers are required to be priests. (5.) The army and navy comprise about twenty thousand men.

VIII.—(1.) How is the pope assisted in government? (2.) What body presides over each department of public business?

IX.—(1.) How is every provincial government administered? (2.) Of what does this council consist? (3.) How are these appointed?

X.—(1.) What is said of the provinces? (2.) What authority have the sub-governors? (3.) What is further said of them? (4.) How is the Collegiate Court formed?

XI.—(1.) What higher courts are mentioned? (2.) What is said of these? (3.) What of a still higher court? (4.) What is required of all civil officers? (5.) How large are the army and navy of the Papal States?

ANCIENT

REPUBLICAN SYSTEMS OF GOVERNMENT.

CHAPTER I.

SYRIAN AND ARABIAN RELIGIOUS REPUBLICS.

I.—(1.) THE ancient people called Syrians were descended from one of the sons of Shem. (2.) They were divided into several tribes, settled in cities and villages, under direction of their patriarchs and elders.

II.—(1.) The Syrian tribes were independent of each other, and formed popular governments. (2.) Each community conducted its affairs in public assemblies.

III.—(1.) Leading families grew up into an aristocratic branch of each tribe. (2.) The patriarchal authority gave place to that of a chief, at first elected, but afterward hereditary.

IV.—(1.) When a tribe increased in numbers and strength, it was able to control smaller tribes. (2.) These grew up into a kingdom, more or less despotic, according to the talents and character of the chief.

I.—(1.) From whom were the Syrians descended? (2.) What was their manner of life?

II.—(1.) What government had these tribes? (2.) How did each community conduct its public business?

III.—(1.) What is said of leading families? (2.) To what did the patriarchal authority give place?

IV.—(1.) What was a tribe able to do? (2.) To what did these grow?

V.—(1.) There was a priesthood among the Syrians, which exercised great influence. (2.) It was composed of several classes, each having distinct duties to perform in the worship of idols.

VI.—(1.) Some of these priests killed animals offered in sacrifice, others attended the altars, and others were musicians and singers. (2.) There were also priestesses, who often pretended to be crazy. (3.) The high-priest was chosen every year by the others, and wore a purple dress, with a golden mitre.

VII.—(1.) The Syrians had a city which they called holy, where was situated a temple. (2.) Multitudes of people assembled in the holy city, to offer sacrifices. (3.) The priests were supported by offerings brought by pilgrims. (4.) The Syrians at first existed as small independent nations, till the weaker ones were subdued by a powerful tribe called the Syrians of Damascus.

VIII.—(1.) The Arabians were descendants of Shem, and dwelt in the wilderness, as nomadic tribes. (2.) Ishmael, the second son of Abram, became a ruler and high-priest of the Arabians.

IX.—(1.) The posterity of Ishmael, in later times, exercised power as kings of the principal tribe of Arabians. (2.) Most of the Arabian tribes continued to lead a nomadic life. (3.) A few settled in towns, and occupied themselves with agricultural and commercial business.

X.—(1.) The wandering tribes drove their flocks from place to place, and used camels as beasts of burden or for domestic service.

V.—(1.) What exercised great influence among the Syrians? (2.) How was it composed?

VI.—(1.) What were duties of these priests? (2.) What else were there? (3.) What is said of a high-priest?

VII.—(1.) What city had the Syrians? (2.) Who assembled there? (3.) How were the priests supported? (4.) What is said of independent Syrian tribes?

VIII.—(1.) Who were the Arabians? (2.) What did Ishmael become?

IX.—(1.) What is said of Ishmael's posterity? (2.) What did most of the tribes continue to do? (3.) What is said of a few?

X.—(1.) What customs of the wandering tribes are mentioned?

(2.) Nomad Arabians regarded the settled tribes as degraded by their labor and peaceful mode of life. (3.) The former preferred to remain in freedom and poverty, while town-dwelling Arabs grew rich by traffic and industry.

XI.—(1.) Arabians who settled in towns and villages made divisions of the soil, and carried on husbandry, with many other lucrative kinds of labor. (2.) They became travelling merchants, journeying in large companies, called caravans, across the desert, from country to country.

XII.—(1.) Arabian tribes were controlled, in a great measure, by their magicians and priests. (2.) They maintained their customs and wild independence during all the wars of Asia. (3.) Their latest descendants wander as nomads in the same wilderness wherein Abram journeyed and Ishmael was born.

XIII.—(1.) Each early tribe of Arabians was an independent community, under patriarchal government. (2.) When a few tribes settled together, they became known in history as some nation under kingly or aristocratic government. (3.) The authority of their monarchs was always balanced by that of head families or aristocracy.

XIV.—(1.) Arabian tribes claimed rank according to their descent from the different sons of their first patriarch. (2.) There was one tribe, called the Koreish, regarded as superior to the rest. (3.) This tribe occupied a fertile portion of Arabia, and possessed a holy city named Mecca.

XV.—(1.) The Midianites were a tribe of Arabians. (2.) They were governed by an aristocracy of several chiefs, with one at their

(2.) How did the nomads regard settlers? (3.) What did the former prefer?

XI.—(1.) What did settled Arabians do? (2.) What did they become?

XII.—(1.) How were Arabian tribes controlled? (2.) What did they maintain? (3.) What is said of their descendants?

XIII.—(1.) What was every early Arabian tribe? (2.) What took place when a few tribes settled together? (3.) By what was their monarch's authority balanced?

XIV.—(1.) What is said regarding the rank of Arabian tribes? (2.) What was the highest tribe? (3.) What is said of this tribe?

XV.—(1.) What were the Midianites? (2.) How were they governed?

head acting as judge and priest. (3.) They were classified as shepherds and traders.

XVI.—(1.) The shepherds dwelt in tents, keeping herds and flocks, and forming a military branch of the tribe. (2.) The merchants travelled in caravans, with camels and servants, from place to place through Arabia and Syria.

XVII.—(1.) Moses, the Hebrew leader, resided among those Midianites during forty years, while he was banished from Egypt by Pharaoh. (2.) He married a daughter of Raguel, a priest-chief, who afterward joined the Hebrew nation.

XVIII.—(1.) Another Arabian tribe is mentioned in the Bible, under the name of Ammonites. (2.) They were descended from Ammon, the son of Lot, who was brother of the patriarch Abraham.

XIX.—(1.) The Ammonites were ruled by a principal chief, in connection with a priesthood. (2.) The priests erected a hollow image, as an idol for the nation to worship. (3.) It had seven mouths, in which the people placed offerings; and these offerings served to support the priests.

XX.—(1.) Another Arabian tribe was known as Moabites, descended, like the Ammonites, from Lot. (2.) They dwelt in villages, under a king, and raised herds of cattle. (3.) They had an aristocracy of principal families, and were allies of the Midianites and Ammonites.

XXI.—(1.) Arabian nomads who pitched their tents near the

(2.) How were they classified by occupations?

XVI.—(1.) What was the shepherds' mode of life? (2.) What was that of the merchants?

XVII.—(1.) What is said of the Hebrew Moses? (2.) Who did Moses marry?

XVIII.—(1.) What other Arabian tribe is mentioned in the Bible? (2.) What is said about them?

XIX.—(1.) How were the Ammonites ruled? (2.) What did the priests erect? (3.) What is said of this image?

XX.—(1.) What was another Arabian tribe? (2.) What life did they lead? (3.) What government had they?

XXI.—(1.) What did certain tribes of Arabian nomads often become?

sea-coast often became pirates and plunderers of shipwrecked vessels. (2.) Wild Arabian tribes who roved the desert were likewise predatory or plundering tribes. (3.) The settled Arabians devoted themselves to manufactures and agriculture, and formed a class of travelling merchants in the most ancient times.

CHAPTER II.

CANAANITE REPUBLICAN TRIBES.

I.—(1.) The Canaanites were descendants of Canaan, son of Ham, and grandson of Noah. (2.) They formed separate communities under various names, and occupied a large portion of the country between Egypt and the Mediterranean Sea.

II.—(1.) Some of the Canaanites lived in cities and villages, and others roved over plains and hills as shepherds. (2.) Settled tribes carried on agriculture and commerce, and engaged their wilder countrymen as soldiers.

III.—(1.) The Canaanites were ruled by chiefs called kings, whose office in some tribes was hereditary, and in others elective. (2.) All public business was discussed and decided upon in assemblies of the people. (3.) Magistrates were chosen from the chief families.

IV.—(1.) Rude tribes, who dwelt in tents, often made war against the settled Canaanites, and obliged them to pay tribute.

(2.) What were other wandering tribes? (3.) To what did the settled people devote themselves?

I.—(1.) What were the Canaanites? (2.) What is said of them?

II.—(1.) Where did the Canaanites reside? (2.) What did the settled tribes do?

III.—(1.) How were the Canaanites ruled? (2.) Where was public business decided on? (3.) What is said of magistrates?

IV.—(1.) What is said concerning the impositions of rude tribes?

(2.) A nomad tribe of Canaanites called Elamites is mentioned in the Bible as conquering several other tribes.

V.—(1.) Abraham, the patriarch, lived with the Elamites for several years, and assisted their king, Chedorlaomer, in his wars against other tribes. (2.) Abraham was also an ally of Melchizedek, king-priest of Salem, a city of the Canaanites.

VI.—(1.) Abraham was originally a nomadic chief, and emigrated from the plains of Shinar, where the Assyrians dwelt. (2.) He wandered with his family and servants from place to place, during many years.

VII.—(1.) Another tribe of Canaanites, called the Hittites, lived near the borders of Egypt. (2.) Abraham and his household visited the Hittites, and bought of them a burial-place, called the Cave of Machpelah.

VIII.—(1.) When the Hebrews came out of Egypt, under their leader Moses, they made war on all the Canaanite tribes, and took possession of their country. (2.) The defeated nations were either reduced to servitude or driven from their ancient territory.

(2.) What conquering tribe is mentioned in the Bible?

V.—(1.) What is said of Abraham? (2.) Of whom was Abraham an ally?

VI.—(1.) What was Abraham originally? (2.) What did he do?

VII.—(1.) What other tribe of Canaanites is mentioned? (2.) Who visited this tribe, and what did he do?

VIII.—(1.) What is said of the Hebrews under Moses? (2.) What became of the defeated nations?

CHAPTER III.

THE PHŒNICIAN CONFEDERACY.

I.—(1.) ONE tribe of the Canaanites, inhabiting the sea-coast of Syria, succeeded in preserving its independence against the Hebrew invaders. (2.) This tribe possessed territory upon the headlands and islands of the Mediterranean Sea.

II.—(1.) The first large city founded by this tribe of Canaanites was named Sidon, and its inhabitants became known in history as Phœnicians. (2.) The next city built was Tyre, which afterward obtained celebrity as a chief city of the Phœnicians.

III.—(1.) Several other cities were built by the Phœnicians upon the coast and islands. (2.) Each city was independent of the others, and governed by its own laws. (3.) In some cities kings were elected, in others they were hereditary, and in others there were no kings.

IV.—(1.) The government of every Phœnician city was more or less aristocratic in form. (2.) The magistrates always belonged to a few wealthy families. (3.) The assemblies consisted of chief citizens, who chose a senate from their own ranks. (4.) The power of the king, or chief magistrate, was limited by the principal families.

V.—(1.) The various Phœnician cities were connected with each other by alliances. (2.) At certain periods, a general congress or

I.—(1.) What is said of one tribe of Canaanites? (2.) Where did this tribe make settlements?

II.—(1.) What is said of a city of this tribe? (2.) What of another city?

III.—(1.) What is said of other cities? (2.) What of each city? (3.) What about kings?

IV.—(1.) What was the government of each city? (2.) What is said of the magistrates? (3.) How were the assemblies composed? (4.) What was the chief's power?

V.—(1.) What connected the various cities? (2.) What took place at cer

meeting of the chief men of all the cities, was held in one of the cities, to deliberate on matters of importance. (3.) The cities thus formed a confederation, under separate chiefs.

VI.—(1.) Next to the king, or other chief, in a Phœnician city, was a magistrate, who shared the power with him. (2.) This officer was responsible to the chief families who elected him.

VII.—(1.) In each city there were several orders of priests, who exercised much influence. (2.) The king's counsellors were taken from the priesthood. (3.) The priests were considered next in dignity to the king.

VIII.—(1.) The Phœnicians grew wealthy by traffic with other countries. (2.) They built many ships, and navigated all the seas then known. (3.) They dispatched caravans to trade with Syria and more distant countries of Asia and Africa.

IX.—(1.) Merchants in every Phœnician community, constituted the most powerful and important class of citizens. (2.) The soldiers employed in foreign wars were usually foreigners, hired and paid by each city.

X.—(1.) It was the policy of every Phœnician community to guard against over-population. (2.) They did not wish their cities to become crowded with idle or other useless inhabitants.

XI.—(1.) They sent out companies of emigrants, from time to time, to settle in other places. (2.) Those emigrants planted colonies, which afterward grew to be flourishing communities.

XII.—(1.) Whenever a Phœnician settlement was made, the

tain periods? (3.) What did the Phœnician cities form?

VI.—(1.) What officer was next to the chief of a Phœnician community? (2.) To whom was he responsible?

VII.—(1.) What were there in each city? (2.) What officers were selected from those orders? (3.) How were the priests regarded?

VIII.—(1.) How did the Phœnicians prosper? (2.) What did they do? (3.) What is said of their trade?

IX.—(1.) What did merchants constitute? (2.) Who were the military?

X.—(1.) What was the Phœnician policy? (2.) What did they not wish?

XI.—(1.) What did they send out? (2.) What did these emigrants do?

XII.—(1.) What was done when a Phœnician settlement was made?

colonists built a town and began to trade with the people near them, and the cities from which they had emigrated.

XIII.—(1.) One of these companies of Phœnician emigrants planted the colony of Carthage, which afterward became a powerful and famous city. (2.) Phœnician merchants sailed in their ships to all parts of the known world, and traded with every country.

XIV.—(1.) The most notable feature of Phœnician communities was their mercantile enterprise. (2.) Another feature was their organization into independent states, each with its city and district government. (3.) A third, was their practice of sending out colonies, to make new settlements, wherever an opportunity was afforded for trade.

XV.—(1.) The history of the Phœnicians furnishes an example of divine wisdom, in directing human affairs. (2.) The Hebrews were permitted to take possession of the land of the Canaanites, in order to bring about the future civilization of distant countries.

XVI.—(1.) Some Canaanitish tribes were dispersed throughout Syria, and became merchants, travelling in great caravans. (2.) These caravans were the means of making remote countries known to each other, through traffic and intercourse. (3.) Other Canaanitish tribes were driven to the sea-coast, and there formed communities of sailors and merchants. (4.) These latter built ships, and sent out colonies to all parts of the world, civilizing savage tribes wherever they settled.

XVII.—(1.) We read in the Bible that in King Solomon's time the Phœnicians were allies of the Hebrews, and traded with them.

XIII.—(1.) What did one of these companies do? (2.) What did Phœnician merchants do?

XIV.—(1.) What was the most notable feature of Phœnician communities? (2.) What was another? (3.) What was a third?

XV.—(1.) What does Phœnician history furnish? (2.) For what purpose were the Hebrews permitted to take possession of Canaan?

XVI.—(1.) What resulted to some of the Canaanitish tribes? (2.) Of what were these caravans the means? (3.) Where were other Canaanitish tribes driven? (4.) What was the consequence?

XVII.—(1.) What do we read in the Bible concerning the Phœnicians?

(2.) Hiram, king of Tyre, assisted in building the temple at Jerusalem. (3.) Solomon and Hiram joined in sending colonies into Syria, where they planted settlements which afterward became prosperous cities.

XVIII.—(1.) The Phœnician states were destined to experience the fate of all luxurious and arrogant communities. (2.) The wealthy city of Tyre became the most powerful of the confederacy, and often assumed control over the rest.

XIX.—(1.) The aristocracy oppressed the poorer people, and bought slaves, to perform every kind of labor. (2.) They hired mercenary soldiers, to spread their dominion over weaker nations.

XX.—(1.) The increase of luxury was fatal to the peace and existence of the state. (2.) The riches of Phœnician merchants, and splendor of their cities, excited the envy of more powerful states. (3.) Tyre, the capital, was at last captured and plundered by the conqueror Alexander.

XXI.—(1.) The merchants of Phœnicia succeeded in building up a wealthy confederacy, and spread their name and power to all parts of the world, as navigators and merchants. (2.) They erred in trusting all labor to slaves, and hiring strangers to defend their cities. (3.) They had no free and independent citizens to support the commonwealth.

XXII.—(1.) Phœnician arts and enterprise were of great importance in civilizing distant countries. (2.) Many colonies of Tyre continued to flourish long after the great city itself had fallen to decay.

(2.) What did Hiram, king of Tyre, do? (3.) What is said of Solomon and Hiram?

XVIII.—(1.) To what were the Phœnician states destined? (2.) What did the city of Tyre become?

XIX.—(1.) What did the aristocracy do? (2.) What did they hire?

XX.—(1.) What is said about luxury? (2.) What results took place? (3.) What was the fate of Tyre?

XXI.—(1.) What did the merchants of Phœnicia succeed in doing? (2.) What error did they commit? (3.) What was the result?

XXII.—(1.) What is said of Phœnician arts and enterprise? (2.) What is remarked of colonies?

CHAPTER IV.

THE CARTHAGINIAN COMMERCIAL STATES.

I.—(1.) CARTHAGE was planted on the northern coast of Africa, where Tunis now stands in the Mediterranean Sea. (2.) Its founders were a colony of Phœnicians, who emigrated from Tyre. (3.) The settlers were principally merchants, with their families and slaves. (4.) They hired land from native savages, who claimed its possession. (5.) These savages lived in tribes, some being nomadic, and others settled in villages.

II.—(1.) The savages who lived in villages were afterward made subject to the colonists, when the latter increased in power. (2.) The wild tribes would not submit, but retreated into the wilderness, with their flocks and herds.

III.—(1.) As the settlement of Carthage began to prosper, many emigrants came from Tyre, and other Phœnician cities, to join the first colonists. (2.) The mercantile class continued to be the wealthiest and most influential part of the community. (3.) Members of this class owned large tracts of land, which they let, for cultivation in farms. (4.) The rest of the community was composed of professional persons, manufacturers, laborers, hired soldiers and mariners.

IV.—(1.) The Carthaginians copied, in some respects, the political institutions of older Phœnician cities. (2.) They formed a mixed republican government, partly democratic and partly aristocratic.

I.—(1.) Where was Carthage planted? (2.) Who were its founders? (3.) What were these settlers? (4.) What did they do? (5.) What of the native savages?

II.—(1.) What occurred to the village savages? (2.) What did the wild tribes do?

III.—(1.) What took place after the settlement began to prosper? (2.) What did the mercantile class continue to be? (3.) What did its members own? (4.) How was the rest of the community composed?

IV.—(1.) What did the Carthaginians copy? (2.) What did they form?

V.—(1.) They chose two chief magistrates or judges, called *suffetes*, who presided over the state, with limited powers. (2.) They also organized a senate, selected from leading families of wealth and merit.

VI.—(1.) This senate consisted of several hundred persons. (2.) Out of the senate was afterward chosen a smaller body, to serve as a select council. (3.) The two *suffetes* were chosen for life, but were subject in many respects to the council and senate.

VII.—(1.) When the senate was elected by the assembled people, it appointed from its own body a number of committees, to which was intrusted the charge of all public business. (2.) These committees consisted each of five senators, and from them were chosen a select body or council, called the *gerusia*. (3.) Members of the *gerusia* held office for life.

VIII.—(1.) The select council first prepared all business, to be deliberated upon in the senate. (2.) In connection with the senate, it made appointments to office, and controlled the affairs of state in peace and war.

IX.—(1.) Next to the office of *suffete* was that of general. (2.) This officer was nominated by the select council, and elected by the senate and assembly of the people. (3.) Commissioners were appointed to attend the generals, as advisers and paymasters.

X.—(1.) The settlement of disputes between citizens was intrusted to magistrates elected by the people. (2.) There was a principal tribunal, composed of wealthy citizens who had previously held offices of trust in the government. (3.) The members of this su-

V.—(1.) What did they choose? (2.) What did they constitute?

VI.—(1.) Of whom did the senate consist? (2.) What was afterward chosen? (3.) What is said of the *suffetes*?

VII.—(1.) What did the senate do? (2.) What is said of these committees? (3.) How long did members of the *gerusia* hold office?

VIII.—(1.) What did the select council do? (2.) What else?

IX.—(1.) What was next to the office of *suffete*? (2.) How was this officer appointed? (3.) Who attended the generals?

X.—(1.) Who were judges in Carthage? (2.) What principal tribunal was there? (3.) What is said of the members?

preme court were at first chosen for life, but became dangerous to the state as an oligarchy. (4.) Their term of office was afterward limited to one year.

XI.—(1.) When Carthage was established, its citizens imitated their Phœnician ancestors, by sending out colonists to make new settlements and build towns. (2.) These colonies depended at first on Carthage, but soon afterward became independent allies.

XII.—(1.) The Carthaginians made war by means of mercenaries, against the neighboring nomadic tribes, under patriarchal chiefs. (2.) Many of these tribes were reduced to servitude, or made to pay tribute to Carthage.

XIII.—(1.) Colonies planted by the Carthaginians became more or less noted for their own importance. (2.) They were always confederated with the principal city, and ready to assist her. (3.) Some of them were governed by officers appointed by the senate of Carthage, but most of them were separate republics.

XIV.—(1.) The Carthaginian government constructed large fleets, and employed powerful armies, for purposes of defence and to extend their territory. (2.) Soldiers were enlisted from other nations, or wild tribes, and paid by the state. (3.) Captives taken in battle, and slaves bought in the market, comprised most of the common laborers. (4.) These persons were employed to make roads and other public works, and to row the war-ships.

XV.—(1.) The Carthaginians forced all subject nations to pay tribute in slaves, cattle, corn, or other products. (2.) The govern-

(4.) How was their term of office limited?

XI.—(1.) How did the Carthaginians imitate the Phœnicians? (2.) What about these colonies?

XII.—(1.) What is said of their making war? (2.) What was the result?

XIII.—(1.) For what did Carthaginian colonies become noted? (2.) What relation did they bear to Carthage? (3.) How were they governed?

XIV.—(1.) What did the Carthaginian government do? (2.) How were the forces organized? (3.) Who comprised the laborers? (4.) How were they employed?

XV.—(1.) What did the Carthaginians do to subject nations? (2.) What did the government own?

ment owned mines in Spain, which were worked by slaves, under overseers.

XVI.—(1.) The commerce of Carthage was carried on by sea and land. (2.) The merchants hired Arabian and African wild tribes, as guards of their caravans. (3.) The government grew enormously rich; but the people were heavily taxed, and often severely oppressed by oligarchies.

XVII.—(1.) Oligarchies differ from aristocracies mainly in the number of persons exercising power. (2.) An aristocratic state is one where a *class* of the people have exclusive power to elect governors and make laws. (3.) An oligarchal state is one where a few families, or a few individuals, of a class, possess this exclusive power.

XVIII.—(1.) The Phœnician and Carthaginian states often became oligarchal, from a small number of influential men usurping authority. (2.) Such usurpation generally resulted in open war between different classes and parties.

XIX.—(1.) The Carthaginian state experienced domestic troubles during its greatest commercial prosperity. (2.) Its citizens quarrelled among themselves, and the state fell a prey to disorder.

XX.—(1.) The Carthaginians became involved in three successive wars against the Romans. (2.) The public treasures failed, and the government at length yielded to foreign conquerors. (3.) Carthage fell from the position of a flourishing commercial state, and became a city of ruins and poverty.

XXI.—(1.) Thus, a small colony, of emigrant traders, grew

XVI.—(1.) How was Carthaginian commerce carried on? (2.) What did the merchants do? (3.) What was the condition of the state?

XVII.—(1.) How do oligarchies differ from aristocracies? (2.) What is an aristocratic state? (3.) What is an oligarchal state?

XVIII.—(1.) What is said of Phœnician and Carthaginian states? (2.) In what did such usurpation usually result?

XIX.—(1.) What did the state experience? (2.) What took place?

XX.—(1.) In what did the Carthaginians become involved? (2.) What resulted? (3.) What was the fate of Carthage?

XXI.—(1.) What is said concerning the small colony of emigrant traders?

up into a great commonwealth, controlling rich cities and subject provinces. (2.) It became unjust to other nations, oppressed the weak, and reduced tribes and communities of freemen to slavery. (3.) The consequence was, that disease and disunion undermined its power, and its merchants and nobles passed away, with their possessions.

CHAPTER V.

THE GRECIAN TRIBES.

I.—(1.) THE Grecians are known in history as communities of men who occupied cities and small territories. (2.) They were originally savage tribes, wandering as nomads over the country which afterward became divided among civilized states.

II.—(1.) The earliest inhabitants of Greece subsisted on fruits and roots. (2.) Their clothing was formed of bark, grass, or the skins of animals. (3.) The most intelligent of the wild nations thus existing was called the Hellenes.

III.—(1.) The Hellenes consisted of four tribes or branches. (2.) These four were called Ionians, Dorians, Æolians and Achæans. (3.) From these descended the Grecian people, afterward variously divided.

IV.—(1.) The two first-mentioned tribes, Ionians and Dorians, were able to absorb the others. (2.) The Grecian people became classed, in later times, as Doric and Ionic. (3.) The Dorian Greeks

(2.) What did it become? (3.) What was the consequence?

I.—(1.) How are the Grecians known in history? (2.) What was their original condition?

II.—(1.) On what did the earliest Grecians subsist? (2.) What was their clothing? (3.) What was the most intelligent tribe called?

III.—(1.) Of what did the Hellenes consist? (2.) What were these tribes called? (3.) Who were their descendants?

IV.—(1.) What is said of the first-mentioned tribes? (2.) How were the Grecians afterward classed? (3.) What is said of the Dorian Greeks?

were more simple in manners and partial to old customs. (4.) The Ionic were given to change and excitement.

V.—(1.) The different dispositions of these two leading tribes influenced the political partitions of the people. (2.) Communities settled as civilized dwellers in cities, were each regulated by laws adapted to its members.

VI.—(1.) All the Grecian states or communities possessed free constitutions. (2.) By free constitutions the people were able, in a greater or less degree, to call their rulers to account. (3.) They were always republican in spirit, though sometimes democratic, sometimes aristocratic, and sometimes monarchal.

VII.—(1.) The Grecian constitutions, or laws regulating their government, differed according to the wants and numbers of every state. (2.) They acknowledged all supreme power to be in the citizens, or members of a community.

VIII.—(1.) In some of the Grecian states all the citizens were allowed to have a voice in public affairs. (2.) States of this kind were denominated democracies, or republics where the whole people exercised power.

IX.—(1.) In other states, the laws were made, and government administered, by members of certain families, or by certain classes of the people. (2.) These bodies-politic were called aristocracies.

X.—(1.) In a Grecian democracy, all the people met and participated in the popular assemblies. (2.) Every citizen, whether

(4.) What was the character of Ionian Greeks?

V.—(1.) What did the different dispositions influence? (2.) How were settled communities regulated?

VI.—(1.) What is said of all Grecian communities? (2.) What were the people able to do? (3.) What were they in spirit?

VII.—(1.) How did Grecian constitutions differ? (2.) What did they all acknowledge?

VIII.—(1.) What was allowed in some states? (2.) What were such states?

IX.—(1.) What is said of other states? (2.) What were such called?

X.—(1.) What is said of a Grecian democracy? (2.) What privilege had

poor or rich, could vote in these assemblies. (3.) The magistrates of a true democracy were taken from all classes of citizens, without distinction.

XI.—(1.) In a Grecian aristocracy, the wealthier classes possessed exclusive or superior privileges and authority. (2.) In some aristocracies, the highest dignities of the state were continued from father to son, in a few leading families.

XII.—(1.) In an aristocracy, the higher, or ruling class, consisted of citizens who were owners of landed estates, or else of those who claimed descent from leading warriors or persons of dignity in ancient times. (2.) Sometimes the possession of wealth, in money or land, and likewise superiority of birth, were necessary to constitute an aristocratic family.

XIII.—(1.) Such families could raise horses and maintain soldiers for the state service. (2.) They often managed to keep the magistracies and offices of justice in their own hands. (3.) When this was the case, the republic became a real aristocracy.

XIV.—(1.) The possession of wealth by a few families gave them the power to buy lands. (2.) The soil thus fell into the hands of a limited number of owners. (3.) The poorer classes were only able to occupy lands by permission of owners, and by paying a yearly sum as rent.

XV.—(1.) Mechanical trades and other occupations, more or less laborious, were at first carried on by slaves. (2.) Citizens who possessed no land were obliged to become mechanics, like

every citizen? (3.) Whence were magistrates taken?

XI.—(1.) What is said of a Grecian aristocracy? (2.) What was the character of some aristocracies?

XII.—(1.) Who were the ruling class in an aristocracy? (2.) What was sometimes requisite?

XIII.—(1.) What could such families do? (2.) How did they often manage? (3.) What was the consequence?

XIV.—(1.) What power did wealth give? (2.) Into what hands did the soil fall? (3.) How were the poorer classes affected by this?

XV.—(1.) Who first carried on mechanical trades? (2.) What were landless citizens obliged to do?

slaves, or to serve the higher class and the state, as laborers and soldiers.

XVI.—(1.) All inhabitants of a Grecian state or city were not considered to be citizens. (2.) The right of citizenship was claimed on certain grounds, defined by law and custom.

XVII.—(1.) In some communities, the right to be called a citizen, and to enjoy a citizen's privileges, belonged to a Greek whose parents had both been citizens. (2.) In others, it was necessary that a person's ancestors, three generations back, should have been citizens.

XVIII.—(1.) In some states, citizenship was allowed to any man whose mother was born on the soil and whose parents were free. (2.) Other states admitted foreigners to the rights of citizens by special laws or by vote of the people.

XIX.—(1.) In some Grecian states, the inhabitants of a chief town or city were allowed the privileges of citizenship, and the residents of villages and the surrounding country were deprived of them. (2.) In others, there was no distinction made between the people of a town and the rural population.

XX.—(1.) Citizens constituted that portion of the free people who could take part in popular meetings. (2.) They might speak and vote for officers of government, and on public affairs brought before them for deliberation. (3.) Citizens of towns were separated into dwelling districts, or wards. (4.) Rural citizens were separated into cantons, or neighborhoods.

XVI.—(1.) What is said concerning citizens? (2.) What of the right of citizenship?

XVII.—(1.) What constitutes citizenship in some communities? (2.) What in others?

XVIII.—(1.) What is said of citizenship in some states? (2.) How did other states admit?

XIX.—(1.) What is said of distinctions, as to chief cities? (2.) What of other states without such distinctions?

XX.—(1.) What did citizens constitute? (2.) What were their privileges? (3.) How were citizens of towns separated? (4.) How were rural citizens separated?

XXI.—(1.) The name of every citizen was registered with that of the ward or canton in which he resided. (2.) The wealthier citizens usually lived in wards or quarters by themselves. (3.) Each citizen was taxed for the support of government according to the amount of fortune which he possessed.

XXII.—(1.) Expenses of the state were principally borne by owners of large property in lands, houses, slaves and money. (2.) The whole body of citizens constituted a militia, or armed force of the state. (3.) Each was obliged to contribute a certain amount and kind of service during war.

XXIII.—(1.) Popular assemblies among the Greeks were composed of all citizens who chose to attend them. (2.) In early times these meetings were called by the king, chief, or other leader of a tribe. (3.) At a later day, the power to call them was given to some special magistrate.

XXIV.—(1.) Before voting on important matters, and for officers, the citizens were sometimes numbered. (2.) Absence from the place of voting was often made a punishable offence. (3.) It was regarded as a particular duty of every citizen to attend the public meeting and exercise his rights.

XXV.—(1.) In some Grecian cities the assemblies were regular and held on fixed days. (2.) Extraordinary and special meetings were called when necessary.

XXVI.—(1.) The business brought before popular assemblies in Grecian states was of three kinds. (2.) The first kind embraced

XXI.—(1.) What is said of citizens' names? (2.) Where did wealthier citizens live? (3.) How were citizens taxed?

XXII.—(1.) How were state expenses borne? (2.) What constituted a militia? (3.) What was each obliged to contribute?

XXIII.—(1.) How were popular assemblies composed? (2.) How were these first convened? (3.) How in later times?

XXIV.—(1.) What is said of numbering the citizens? (2.) What was an offence? (3.) What was regarded to be a duty?

XXV.—(1.) When were assemblies held? (2.) What is said of other meetings?

XXVI.—(1.) How many different kinds of business came before the popular assemblies? (2.) What did the first kind of business embrace?

legislation, or passing of laws. (3.) The second related to the choice of magistrates. (4.) The third class of business was that of deciding questions of justice and right between citizens.

XXVII.—(1.) In some democratic republics of Greece the poor citizens were often possessed of dangerous power. (2.) They received pay for attending assemblies, and sold their votes to wealthy candidates for election to office.

XXVIII.—(1.) In some cities, the popular assembly was very seldom called together; or if a meeting was convened, it consisted of select persons. (2.) In this manner, a mixture of aristocratic and democratic government was formed.

XXIX.—(1.) In most Grecian cities, there was a smaller body selected from members of the popular assembly. (2.) This smaller body prepared business to be acted upon in the democratic meeting. (3.) It was called a council, and its members were chosen from leading persons in each profession or division of the people. (4.) This council was chosen to act during one year.

XXX.—(1.) In many communities there was a permanent body of citizens formed, instead of a yearly council. (2.) This was a senate, or body of elders, who were obliged to be of a certain age.

XXXI.—(1.) Sometimes a senate was composed of the most capable and honest elders, chosen to serve during life. (2.) Generally the term of office was limited to one or more years.

(3.) To what did the second relate? (4.) The third?

XXVII.—(1.) What was often the case in democratic republics? (2.) What did they receive and do?

XXVIII.—(1.) What is said of the assembly in some cities? (2.) What was formed by this?

XXIX.—(1.) What was selected in most Grecian cities? (2.) What did this body prepare? (3.) What was this body called? (4.) For how long time was it chosen?

XXX.—(1.) What was done in many communities? (2.) What was this body?

XXXI.—(1.) What was the character of the senate? (2.) What was generally its term of authority?

XXXII.—(1.) The assembly, or popular gathering of every Grecian community was like a modern town meeting. (2.) The council of leading citizens, or senate, was like a board of aldermen, or legislature, at the present day.

XXXIII.—(1.) Every Grecian city had a certain number of magistrates. (2.) These officers exercised various powers, and performed different duties. (3.) They were kept distinct from priests, teachers, or ambassadors. (4.) Grecian magistrates were usually answerable to the people for their conduct while in office. (5.) In some states they were called to account by the council or senate.

XXXIV.—(1.) In most of the Grecian republics all magistrates were chosen by the people. (2.) In a few it was customary to select these officers from one or more leading families, in hereditary succession. (3.) The general principle was election by the people, from the most popular or leading men.

XXXV.—(1.) In many communities the magistrates were elected by casting lots, so that chance decided among a number. (2.) The lot was usually employed for a selection of two out of a number of candidates.

XXXVI.—(1.) In a Grecian democracy, members of every class of citizens, whether rich or poor, claimed equal votes. (2.) When an aristocratic party arose, its first effort was to limit the number and classes of citizens who might be entitled to vote.

XXXVII.—(1.) Grecian magistrates did not receive fixed sala-

XXXII.—(1.) What modern institutions did a Grecian assembly resemble? (2.) What did a Grecian council or senate resemble?

XXXIII.—(1.) What did every city have? (2.) What authority did they possess? (3.) From whom were they distinct? (4.) To whom were they answerable? (5.) Who called them to account in some states?

XXXIV.—(1.) How were magistrates generally appointed? (2.) How were they selected in a few states? (3.) What was the general principle of their choice?

XXXV.—(1.) What is said of magistrates in many communities? (2.) For what was the lot usually employed?

XXXVI.—(1.) What did citizens claim in a democracy? (2.) What was the first effort of an aristocracy?

XXXVII.—(1.) What is said concerning the pay of Grecian magistrates?

ries for the labors they performed. (2.) The honor of being elected was considered to be of more importance than gain. (3.) Members of the poorer classes were seldom able or willing to hold office.

XXXVIII.—(1.) When a few families gained control of all the assemblies, they were able to have the magistrates chosen always from their own members. (2.) The state then became an *oligarchy*, as before explained. (3.) The difference between an *oligarchic* and an *aristocratic* state consisted in the first being governed by a few privileged families, and the second by a *class* of privileged citizens.

XXXIX.—(1.) Magistrates were usually chosen for a limited term, such as one year, and in some cases for only half a year. (2.) When a magistrate usurped powers not belonging to his office, or refused to render an account to the people, he was called a tyrant.

XL.—(1.) The distinguishing institutions of all Grecian republics were three in number. (2.) The first was an assembly of the people; the second, a smaller council, or senate; the third, an election of magistrates. (3.) Accordingly as the popular assembly possessed more or less power, and the magistrates were chosen by a greater or less number of citizens, the state became a *democracy*, an *aristocracy*, or an *oligarchy*.

XLI.—(1.) Laws enacted in popular assemblies, or by senates, were committed to writing, and intrusted to the keeping of officers. (2.) Popular assemblies acted as courts of justice in certain cases

(2.) What was the honor of election considered? (3.) Who seldom held office?

XXXVIII.—(1.) What is said of a few leading families? (2.) What did the state then become? (3.) What is the difference between an *oligarchy* and an *aristocracy*?

XXXIX.—(1.) For how long a time were magistrates chosen? (2.) What was a magistrate called who assumed too much power?

XL.—(1.) What is said of distinguishing institutions? (2.) What were they? (3.) What did their modifications produce?

XLI.—(1.) What is said of Grecian laws? (2.) What of popular assemblies?

(3.) They gave decisions in accordance with the laws, and by a majority of votes.

XLII.—(1.) The popular assemblies, acting as courts, decided questions and punished offences which affected the community as a body politic or social. (2.) Disputes between individuals, or other private grievances, were passed upon by smaller courts, consisting of a number of citizens.

XLIII.—(1.) Members of the smaller courts were selected by lot, from the popular assembly. (2.) They were required to be thirty years of age, of good reputation, and not indebted for taxes to the state.

XLIV.—(1.) The larger courts were sometimes composed of many hundreds of citizens. (2.) They listened to the accusers and defendants, to the counsel, styled orators, and to the witnesses, and then made decision. (3.) Courts of this kind among the Greeks were like juries in modern times, except that they were more numerous.

XLV.—(1.) There were other inferior tribunals connected with public matters. (2.) These made preliminary examinations in matters of dispute or offence, and disposed finally of simple cases.

XLVI.—(1.) Every Grecian commonwealth was an independent republic, having its own constitution, magistrates and laws. (2.) The principal states entered into alliance and formed a confederacy. (3.) The confederation was often interrupted by wars between two or more states.

(3.) How did these assemblies give decisions?

XLII.—(1.) What did these popular assemblies do? (2.) How were disputes between citizens passed upon?

XLIII.—(1.) How were smaller courts formed? (2.) What were members required to be?

XLIV.—(1.) What is said of the larger courts? (2.) What was their method of proceeding? (3.) What modern body did the Grecian popular courts resemble?

XLV.—(1.) What is said of other tribunals? (2.) What was their business?

XLVI.—(1.) What is said of every Grecian commonwealth? (2.) What was done by the principal states? (3.) How was the confederation often interrupted?

XLVII.—(1.) The confederacy of Grecian republics was known as the Amphictyonic League. (2.) It was represented in a general convention, composed of delegates chosen by the leading states. (3.) These delegates met in council twice every year, at Thermopylæ and Delphi, two of the Grecian cities.

XLVIII.—(1.) The Amphictyonic Council comprised the representatives of twelve principal Grecian cities. (2.) Each city sent ten chosen citizens to the meetings. (3.) This council decided important questions between different states. (4.) It had charge of the Temple of Delphi, which was the chief religious shrine of Greece.



CHAPTER VI.

THE REPUBLIC OF ATHENS.

I.—(1.) THE state of Athens originated in a colony of Egyptians, under Cecrops, their leader. (2.) This colony united with savage inhabitants of the country and captives taken in battle. (3.) It existed as a republic, under mixed forms of government, during seventeen hundred years.

II.—(1.) Cecrops, the founder, exercised authority as the head, or king of the state. (2.) He was succeeded by hereditary kings, limited in their jurisdiction.

XLVII.—(1.) What was the Grecian confederacy called? (2.) How was it represented? (3.) Where did the delegates meet?

XLVIII.—(1.) What did the Amphictyonic Council comprise? (2.) How many delegates did each city send? (3.) What was the business of the council? (4.) Of what had it charge?

I.—(1.) What was the origin of Athens? (2.) With whom did this colony unite? (3.) How long was it a republic?

II.—(1.) What was the authority of Cecrops? (2.) By whom was he succeeded?

III.—(1.) Cecrops divided the population into classes of citizens and slaves. (2.) A third class was afterward formed, consisting of foreigners who arrived at Athens after the settlement. (3.) The names of all the people were registered, under the heads of citizens, strangers, or slaves.

IV.—(1.) At the death of a popular king, called Codrus, the people of Athens altered and limited the powers of their chief magistrate. (2.) They deputed a wise citizen, named Solon, to prepare for them a constitution, or frame of government.

V.—(1.) Solon separated the class of citizens into four subdivisions. (2.) These persons, with their descendants, he denominated *freemen of Athens*. (3.) They were privileged to assemble in town meeting, to make laws and choose magistrates. (4.) Each freeman was obliged to pay a tax to the state, in proportion to the value of his property.

VI.—(1.) The class of *strangers in Athens* comprised all foreigners, and those born in Athens who were neither citizens nor slaves. (2.) These strangers were required to wear certain badges, to distinguish them from the citizens. (3.) Every stranger was permitted to select some citizen as a protector, who was called his *patron*.

VII.—(1.) It was the duty of a patron to guard the stranger who selected him from all oppression or illegal practices. (2.) A stranger was obliged to pay the same tax as a citizen. (3.) An extra sum was required from the whole body of strangers, toward the support of government.

III.—(1.) What division did Cecrops make? (2.) What class was afterward formed? (3.) What is said of citizens' names?

IV.—(1.) What did the people do at the death of Codrus? (2.) Who was deputed as a law-maker?

V.—(1.) What divisions did Solon make? (2.) What were these persons denominated? (3.) How were they privileged? (4.) What was each obliged to do?

VI.—(1.) What did the class of strangers comprise in Athens? (2.) What was required of them? (3.) What was every stranger permitted?

VII.—(1.) What was a patron's duty? (2.) What was a stranger obliged to pay? (3.) What extra demand was made upon strangers?

VIII.—(1.) The slaves, who constituted the third class of the Athenian population, were not obliged to pay a tax, and were not considered to have any rights. (2.) They were allowed to earn money for themselves, with permission of their masters or owners. (3.) They were permitted to buy their freedom, if able at any time.

IX.—(1.) Slaves consisted of captives taken in battle, or bought from traders. (2.) They were natives of various countries then known, and of all complexions. (3.) They were occupied in cultivating land, building, quarrying, carrying burdens, and all other laborious occupations. (4.) They were also employed as domestic servants of citizens and strangers.

X.—(1.) When population grew more numerous, the four subdivisions of citizens were partitioned again. (2.) In later days, the voting people of Athens comprised ten tribes. (3.) Each of these ten tribes was entitled to select, from its members, certain officers of the state.

XI.—(1.) Every tribe chose fifty of its members as representatives in a state council. (2.) The state council, or *senate*, consisted of five hundred citizens. (3.) Senators were chosen either by lot or by vote of their fellows in every tribe.

XII.—(1.) When senators were to be chosen by lot, the names of all freemen in a tribe were engraved on small brass plates and placed in an urn. (2.) Into another urn were dropped the same number of beans, all of which were black except fifty. (3.) Then

VIII.—(1.) What is said of slaves in Athens? (2.) What were they allowed? (3.) What else were they permitted?

IX.—(1.) Of what persons did slaves consist? (2.) Of what nation and color were they? (3.) How were they occupied? (4.) How were they otherwise employed?

X.—(1.) What took place when population increased? (2.) How many tribes or wards of voters did the citizens afterward comprise? (3.) To what was each tribe entitled?

XI.—(1.) What did every tribe choose? (2.) How many members had the senate? (3.) How were senators chosen?

XII.—(1.) What was done when senators were to be chosen by lot? (2.) What were dropped into another urn? (3.) What was furthermore done?

one name and one bean were taken out at the same time, till all were drawn. (4.) Every citizen whose name came out with a white bean was then declared a senator.

XIII.—(1.) Important matters relating to war and peace, were first brought for discussion before the senate. (2.) Senators were usually paid a certain sum for every day of service.

XIV.—(1.) For purposes of war and taxation, the Athenian citizens were divided into four classes, according to their income. (2.) Every member of either of the two wealthier classes was required to keep and provide a horse and soldier. (3.) Citizens of the third class were obliged to serve as heavy armed, and citizens of the fourth class as light armed soldiers, or as mariners and oarsmen of the fleet.

XV.—(1.) A chief magistrate, called an *Archon*, was elected by the citizens, to serve during life. (2.) The office was at first made hereditary in the family of Codrus, the last king. (3.) Archons were accountable to the people for their conduct.

XVI.—(1.) The archon's term of office was afterward reduced to ten years. (2.) At a later period, the government of a single chief ruler was changed for that of a board, or council of nine magistrates, each elected for a single year.

XVII.—(1.) The first of the nine magistrates was still called the *archon*. (2.) He presided over the board, and the year in which he served was called by his name. (3.) The second magistrate had the title of king, or *Basileus*. (4.) He presided over

(4.) What was the result of the drawing?

XIII.—(1.) What matters did the senate first discuss? (2.) What did senators usually receive?

XIV.—(1.) How were Athenian citizens divided? (2.) What was every member of the wealthier classes required to do? (3.) What were citizens of the third and fourth classes obliged to do?

XV.—(1.) What was an *Archon*? (2.) What was the office at first? (3.) To whom were archons accountable?

XVI.—(1.) To how many years was the archon's term reduced? (2.) What was done at a later period?

XVII.—(1.) What was the first of these magistrates called? (2.) What is said of him? (3.) What title had the second archon? (4.) What was his

religious matters in the state. (5.) The third magistrate was called the *Polemarch*. (6.) He superintended the military affairs of the republic.

XVIII.—(1.) The remaining head magistrates, six in number, presided as judges over courts of the people. (2.) The body, or board of *nine*, formed a supreme council of state.

XIX.—(1.) These magistrates, and all other elected officers, were chosen by citizens in their assemblies. (2.) The candidates for office were almost always taken from the two wealthy classes, or the middling rank of citizens. (3.) The fourth class shared in the rights of assembling and voting, but were too poor to hold offices without pay.

XX.—(1.) The public assembly framed the laws, elected magistrates, and had a voice in all matters concerning the republic. (2.) In this assembly, or popular meeting, every citizen fifty years old might address the people.

XXI.—(1.) When Athens became a powerful state, the popular assembly numbered twenty-one thousand persons. (2.) This assembly of the people was called the *Ecclesia*.

XXII.—(1.) After the *senate* was formed, from delegates chosen by tribes, all public matters were first prepared in its meetings. (2.) After having been sufficiently debated in the senate, these matters were submitted to popular vote in the *Ecclesia*.

XXIII.—(1.) The highest court of justice in Athens was called the *Arcopagus*. (2.) Its members were chosen out of the wisest

duty? (5.) What was the third archon called? (6.) What was his business?

XVIII.—(1.) What did the remaining archons do? (2.) What did the whole body form?

XIX.—(1.) How were the magistrates chosen? (2.) From what classes were candidates generally taken? (3.) What did the fourth class share?

XX.—(1.) What is said of the public assembly? (2.) Who might address the people?

XXI.—(1.) How many persons were in the popular assembly? (2.) What was this meeting called?

XXII.—(1.) What took place after the senate was formed? (2.) What course did these matters take?

XXIII.—(1.) What was the *Arcopagus*? (2.) Of whom was it composed?

and best citizens who had held the dignity of an *archon*, or chief magistrate. (3.) The meetings of this court were held in the open air. (4.) It deliberated on all causes in the night time.

XXIV.—(1.) The areopagus had charge of the public treasury, and guardianship of all the laws. (2.) It exercised supervision over the education of youth, and appointed teachers for them. (3.) It had authority to inquire into the morals and habits of the people, to punish disorderly persons, and to reward sober and useful citizens.

XXV.—(1.) All religious ceremonies were regulated by the areopagus. (2.) It possessed authority to call any citizen to account, and make him declare how he obtained his living and spent his time.

XXVI.—(1.) Judges of the areopagus were required to be of the strictest integrity and morals. (2.) It was considered to be a high offence for one of them to be seen in a tavern, and they were expected to maintain at all times a grave and reserved demeanor. (3.) A judge who became intoxicated was punished sometimes with death.

XXVII.—(1.) The inferior courts of the people were composed of a greater or less number of citizens, chosen by lot. (2.) Decisions of cases were generally made in the same manner, by drawing black and white beans. (3.) A member of one of the courts received three *oboli*, or five pence, for hearing a case. (4.) These Athenian courts were like modern juries, but more numerous. (5.) The larger ones comprised several hundred members each.

(3.) Where were its meetings held? (4.) When did it deliberate?

XXIV.—(1.) Of what had this court charge? (2.) What did it exercise? (3.) What authority had the areopagus?

XXV.—(1.) What is said of religious ceremonies? (2.) What power did the areopagus have over every citizen?

XXVI.—(1.) What were members of this court required to be? (2.) What is said concerning them? (3.) What is said of intoxication in an areopagite judge?

XXVII.—(1.) How were the inferior courts composed? (2.) How were decisions made? (3.) What did the members of popular courts receive? (4.) What were Athenian courts like? (5.) What is said of the larger ones?

XXVIII.—(1.) A number of persons were authorized to attend every court, to argue the suits on either side. (2.) These officials were called *orators*, and were like pleaders of law in modern courts of justice. (3.) Appeals to the whole people could be made from a decision of any court except the supreme tribunal of the Areopagus.

XXIX.—(1.) Athens continued to be governed by archons, senate, and popular assemblies, till a citizen named Pisistratus usurped supreme power. (2.) His sway was followed by a period of oligarchic government, in which thirty self-appointed magistrates held all the chief offices. (3.) The period of their control was called the reign of the thirty tyrants.

XXX.—(1.) After the thirty tyrants fell, Athenian citizens recovered their sway in assemblies of the people. (2.) The power of the populace became greater, and the citizens were divided into disorderly factions.

XXXI.—(1.) At this period, the republic of Athens was considered to be a complete democracy. (2.) The number of freemen, or citizens entitled to vote, was comparatively small. (3.) These citizens seldom, if ever, exceeded twenty-five thousand, whilst there were four hundred thousand slaves, who had no rights at all.

XXXII.—(1.) The Athenian people, in their freest days, formed an aristocratic despotism. (2.) The free citizens, who were twenty-five thousand in number, possessed unlimited authority over half a million of slaves and foreigners.

XXXIII.—(1.) The state carried in itself the disease which

XXVIII.—(1.) Who were authorized to attend courts? (2.) What were these officials called, and what were they like? (3.) What is said of appeals?

XXIX.—(1.) What is said of Athenian government? (2.) What followed the sway of Pisistratus? (3.) What was this period called?

XXX.—(1.) What followed the oligarchy? (2.) What then took place?

XXXI.—(1.) What was Athens considered to be? (2.) What is said of the citizens? (3.) How did they compare in number with the slaves?

XXXII.—(1.) What did the Athenian people form? (2.) How was this despotism manifested?

XXXIII.—(1.) What is here remarked concerning the Athenian state?

was to destroy it. (2.) The Athenian people became tyrannical and arrogant. (3.) The voting classes were divided into parties, and the rich employed their wealth to oppress the poor, or purchase their support in the assemblies.

XXXIV.—(1.) At length, Athens became involved in war with other republics of Greece, and her citizens were deprived of their rights and privileges. (2.) The commonwealth fell a prey to demagogues at home, and at last sank under the military despotism of Alexander the Conqueror.



CHAPTER VII.

THE LACEDEMONIAN REPUBLIC.

I.—(1.) The Lacedemonian or Spartan republic owed its political organization to the labors of a law-giver named Lycurgus. (2.) It originated, like other Grecian states, in a consolidation of two or more tribes of savage people.

II.—(1.) The chief persons of the commonwealth were two magistrates, with the title of kings. (2.) They were generals of the republic, in time of war, and chief priests of the nation. (3.) Their authority was hereditary in two branches of an ancient family. (4.) It was restricted by laws and by the power of the people.

III.—(1.) A law-making body, called the senate, constituted a national council. (2.) Its members were elected by the Spartan

(2.) What did the people become? (3.) What divisions followed, and what effects?

XXXIV.—(1.) What was the result of this condition of affairs? (2.) What was the fate of Athens?

I.—(1.) What is said of the Spartan republic? (2.) How did it originate?

II.—(1.) Who were chief in the commonwealth? (2.) What authority had they? (3.) What was its duration? (4.) How was it restricted?

III.—(1.) What constituted the national council? (2.) What is said of its

people, and were twenty-eight in number. (3.) All public matters were first discussed in this senate.

IV.—(1.) An assembly of the people acted upon laws and regulations submitted to their discussion. (2.) Only such matters came before the assembly of the people as had been considered by the senate. (3.) Action of the senate was not legal unless it received the sanction of the citizens afterward.

V.—(1.) The laws of Sparta were not allowed to be written, as in other Grecian states. (2.) They were taught to children by their parents and masters. (3.) All citizens were required to have the laws fixed in their memory.

VI.—(1.) There was a high court or council of five magistrates, called *Ephori*. (2.) The *Ephori* had jurisdiction over morals, took charge of the treasury, and had authority to call kings and senators to account at any time.

VII.—(1.) The *Ephori*, in connection with the senate, held the power of life and death over kings and citizens accused of offence against the state. (2.) They decided disputes between individuals, and could impeach senators and officers. (2.) Two of the *Ephori* accompanied the kings in military expeditions. (4.) They were elected yearly from citizens who had been senators.

VIII.—(1.) The *Ephori* presided over the education of Spartan children, and called the people to meet in their assemblies. (2.) They had power to levy troops, and send them to war, and gave orders to the kings, when the latter acted as generals.

members? (3.) What about public matters?

IV.—(1.) What is said of a popular assembly? (2.) What matters came before it? (3.) What is said of the senate's action?

V.—(1.) What about Spartan laws? (2.) To whom were they taught? (3.) What was required of citizens?

VI.—(1.) What high court was there in Sparta? (2.) What authority had these, magistrates?

VII.—(1.) What penal power did the *Ephori* hold? (2.) What did they do? (3.) What did two of them do? (4.) How were the *Ephori* appointed?

VIII.—(1.) What other authority was exercised by these magistrates? (2.) What military power had they?

IX.—(1.) The twenty-eight senators were chosen for life, by the citizens, in popular assembly. (2.) They were selected from the eldest and most respectable citizens. (3.) In connection with the *Ephori*, they directed all public measures, in peace or war. (4.) They were judges of the people in questions that concerned property and life.

X.—(1.) The assemblies of the people were composed of all citizens over thirty years of age. (2.) No Spartan citizen was permitted to engage in mechanical or menial pursuits. (3.) All Spartan youths were educated to be soldiers, and remained at home to defend the state till they became entitled to the name of Spartan citizens.

XI.—(1.) Land, in the Lacedemonian territory, was divided equally among the citizens. (2.) There were thirty-nine thousand allotments of land in this manner. (3.) The proprietors of these shares were not allowed to sell them.

XII.—(1.) The Lacedemonian people were of two classes—native born and freedmen. (2.) Those born of Spartan parents, and brought up under the state regulations, were eligible to civil and military offices. (3.) The other class of citizens consisted of persons whose parents were not native, or who were not educated according to law. (4.) Members of the latter class were permitted to vote, but could not hold office. (5.) Strangers and released captives belonged to the second class.

XIII.—(1.) The electors of the chief Lacedemonian city, called

IX.—(1.) What is said of the senate? (2.) How were senators selected? (3.) What were the senators' powers? (4.) What judicial authority had they?

X.—(1.) Who composed the popular assemblies? (2.) How were Spartan citizens restricted? (3.) What is said of Spartan youth?

XI.—(1.) How was land divided in Lacedemonia? (2.) How many allotments of the soil were there? (3.) What was not allowed to landholders?

XII.—(1.) How were the Lacedemonian people classed? (2.) Who were eligible to hold office? (3.) Who constituted the second class? (4.) How were members of the second class restricted? (5.) What persons belonged to the second class?

XIII.—(1.) When and where did the Lacedemonian electors meet?

Sparta, met in their assemblies twice a year, or oftener, when convened by the *Ephori*. (2.) Free citizens of other towns, in the republic, sent delegates or committees of their number, to meet with the assembly of Sparta.

XIV.—(1.) The Lacedemonian senate was presided over by the two kings. (2.) Each of the kings possessed a vote, like any other citizen, but no power over the meeting except what was required to enforce order.

XV.—(1.) Besides native citizens, and freedmen entitled to attend the assemblies, there were two other classes of inhabitants in Lacedemonian territory. (2.) The first of these, consisting of descendants of a former Grecian tribe, were called helots. (3.) These helots were deprived of all power in the republic, and considered to be slaves of Spartan citizens.

XVI.—(1.) Helots cultivated the lands owned by Spartan citizens, paying a fixed rent for them yearly. (2.) They carried on mechanical trades, and followed the Spartan soldiers to war as servants. (3.) Sometimes helots were permitted to acquire wealth, and occasionally they were admitted to citizenship, as a reward of meritorious actions. (4.) They were usually treated with great cruelty by their masters.

XVII.—(1.) The lowest class of the population was made up of slaves, of various nationalities and colors. (2.) These persons performed rough labors and menial services, required in public and domestic offices.

(2.) How were free citizens of other towns represented?

XIV.—(1.) Who presided over the senate? (2.) What influence had the kings over this body?

XV.—(1.) What other classes made up the Lacedemonian community? (2.) Of what did the first of these classes consist? (3.) What is said of these helots?

XVI.—(1.) What labors did the helots perform? (2.) What other occupations had they? (3.) What privileges did they sometimes have? (4.) How were they usually treated?

XVII.—(1.) What made up the lowest class of Lacedemonian population? (2.) What labors did they perform?

XVIII.—(1.) The Lacedemonian republic became famous among Grecian states, on account of the bravery and hardihood of its citizens, who were all soldiers. (2.) The state of Sparta was often engaged in wars with Athens and other Grecian cities. (3.) It became powerful and feared, but at length suffered the fate of all ambitious states. (4.) It fell a prey to inward disorder and violence from without.

XIX.—(1.) The Spartan government was founded on principles of great value. (2.) Its laws were opposed to luxury, and provided for the education of every citizen from his childhood. (3.) But the privileges and rights of citizenship were confined to a limited class. (4.) Members of this class were allowed to tyrannize over other classes of their fellow-men.

XX.—(1.) The servile population of Sparta became more numerous than the free citizens. (2.) They had no share in the commonwealth, and no interest in the soil. (3.) Their education was not cared for, in youth, and they were allowed no position when they grew up to manhood.

XXI.—(1.) The consequences attending such inequality of classes were felt when the state grew rich and powerful. (2.) The free citizens tyrannized over other classes, and demagogues divided the population. (3.) At last a foreign enemy was able to conquer the republic without difficulty.

XVIII.—(1.) For what did the Lacedemonian republic become famous? (2.) In what was Sparta often engaged? (3.) What is said of it? (4.) What was its fate?

XIX.—(1.) What is said of Spartan government? (2.) What of its laws? (3.) How were popular rights restricted? (4.) What was permitted to this class?

XX.—(1.) What did the servile population become? (2.) In what had they no share or interest? (3.) What was their social condition?

XXI.—(1.) What is said of the consequences attending such inequality? (2.) What results followed? (3.) What was the end of these troubles?

CHAPTER VIII.

OTHER GRECIAN STATES.

I.—(1.) BESIDES the republics of Attica, or Athens, and Lacedæmon, or Sparta, many other small Greek states grew up with popular institutions. (2.) The earliest government of each was hereditary chieftainship. (3.) Every tribe was a clan, led in its wanderings by a headman. (4.) In this respect, the early Grecian communities were like all other savage tribes before settlement and cultivation of land.

II.—(1.) A nationality of the separate savage tribes of Greece was brought about through their common religion. (2.) All of them worshipped the same set of gods, and attended one principal temple, situated in a place called Delphi. (3.) Members of different tribes met at this temple, and formed a body of their headmen, to consult about sacrifices and festivals. (4.) This was the origin of the Amphietyonic Council, afterward composed of delegates from each Grecian state.

III.—(1.) Athens and Sparta grew to be the leading states of Greece. (2.) Athens was chief among the communities descended from Ionian tribes. (3.) Sparta was principal of the communities descended from Dorian tribes.

IV.—(1.) ARCADIA was an independent district of Greece, containing several cities. (2.) In each city were wardens, or chief

I.—(1.) What is said of other Greek states? (2.) What was the first government of each? (3.) What was every tribe? (4.) What did Grecian communities resemble, in this respect?

II.—(1.) How was Grecian nationality brought about? (2.) What did they all do? (3.) What did members of different tribes form? (4.) Of what was this the origin?

III.—(1.) What two grew to be leading states? (2.) Among what communities was Athens chief? (3.) Of what other communities was Sparta the principal?

IV.—(1.) What was the Grecian state of Arcadia? (2.) What were in

magistrates of the people, and a senate, elected by the popular assembly. (3.) In time of war, a leader, or king, was chosen by all the cities ; but they were usually independent of each other.

V.—(1.) The ARGIVE republic was a Dorian state, governed by a senate, and a body of citizens chosen from the wealthiest persons of the community. (2.) It was thus based on an aristocratic constitution, with magistrates chosen from a ruling class.

VI.—(1.) The ACHAIAN republics consisted of twelve cities, each with seven or eight districts, or cantons. (2.) Each of the twelve was an independent state, with a democratic constitution. (3.) They were combined by a league, or compact, which made them a confederated nation. (4.) The Achaian states, thus confederated, were able to defend themselves from other nations, and live in peace and happiness.

VII.—(1.) The republic of CORINTH was governed by its citizens, in general assembly, and a senate. (2.) The chief inhabitants were merchants, forming a wealthy class. (3.) From this class the magistrates and senate were usually selected, making it an aristocratic state.

VIII.—(1.) The aristocratic republic of ELIS consisted of several districts, each choosing a magistrate from the tribe occupying it. (2.) A senate, of ninety members, met at the capital, and held office during life.

IX.—(1.) The BÆOTIAN republic embraced a number of small states, each possessing a chief city and several villages. (2.) They were combined as a nation by a league, with the state of Thebes at

each city? (3.) What was done in time of war?

V.—(1.) What was the Argive republic? (2.) What was its basis?

VI.—(1.) What were the Achaian republics? (2.) What was each district? (3.) How were the twelve combined? (4.) What is said of this league of republics?

VII.—(1.) What about the republic of Corinth? (2.) Who composed its chief inhabitants? (3.) How were magistrates and senates appointed?

VIII.—(1.) What is said of the republic of Elis? (2.) What about its senate?

IX.—(1.) What did the Bæotian republic embrace? (2.) What united them?

its head. (3.) Bœotia was divided into four districts, each having an assembly of citizens. (4.) These assemblies chose eleven officers, called Bœotarchs, who governed the confederacy as civil magistrates and military commanders. (5.) Each Bœotian city was ruled by a small body of men, elected by law from a few leading families. (6.) It thus constituted an oligarchic state.

X.—(1.) The republic of MEGARIS was governed by magistrates chosen for short terms by the people. (2.) All power was in the hands of the citizens at large who were not slaves so that the constitution was democratic.

XI.—(1.) The island republic of CRETE was made up of a number of cities, sometimes united and sometimes at war with each other. (2.) Every city had its own constitution, with a senate elected from the citizens. (3.) The magistrates of each city were ten in number, always taken from certain privileged families. (4.) These officers, called *cosmi*, were supreme, and governed as an oligarchic body.

XII.—(1.) All Grecian states were in the practice of sending out companies of their citizens, to settle on islands and in districts of other countries. (2.) In this way, many Grecian colonies grew up, and became flourishing states. (3.) These colonies were usually governed as republics, with democratic, aristocratic, or oligarchic constitutions.

XIII.—(1.) SYRACUSE was the most powerful of all Grecian colonies. (2.) It was planted in the island of Sicily, and grew up under an aristocratic form of government. (3.) The chief power was, at

(3.) How was Bœotia divided? (4.) What did the Bœotian assemblies choose? (5.) How was each city ruled? (6.) What did it thus constitute?

X.—(1.) How was the republic of Megaris governed? (2.) In whose hands was the power?

XI.—(1.) What is said of Crete? (2.) What did every city have? (3.) What is said of magistrates? (4.) What government did these officers constitute?

XII.—(1.) What was the practice of Grecian states? (2.) What resulted? (3.) How were such colonies governed?

XIII.—(1.) What was the most powerful of Grecian colonies? (2.) What is said of it? (3.) In what class was chief power lodged?

first, lodged in the hands of the richest class. (4.) A democratic party afterward arose, and, by the help of the slaves, who rose against their masters, drove the aristocratic leaders away. (5.) The aristocrats called foreigners to their assistance, and regained power by establishing a foreigner as king. (6.) Syracuse continued a monarchy till another revolution of the people restored republicanism, under the democratic form.

XIV.—(1.) Under a democratic constitution, magistrates and other officers were elected by lot. (2.) Parties and factions then grew up, and a general named Dionysius made himself king, and was succeeded by a line of absolute monarchs. (3.) The republic was restored by a patriot named Timoleon, but after his death the supreme power fell into the hands of different tyrants. (4.) The political history of Syracuse teaches the evils of civil war and social divisions among the people of a state.

XV.—(1.) The republic of MASSILIA arose from a Grecian colony planted on the coast of ancient Gallia. (2.) Its government was aristocratic, of a liberal form. (3.) The chief power was exercised by a body of six hundred citizens, called *timuchi*. (4.) They were chosen for life, and were obliged to be married men with families. (5.) None but those whose grandfathers and fathers were citizens, as well as themselves, could belong to this body. (6.) At the head of the council of six hundred were fifteen principal men. (7.) Three of these were the chief magistrates of the state. (8.) The Massilian republic was prosperous, and became the seat of learning and philosophy.

(4.) What afterward occurred? (5.) What did the aristocrats do? (6.) What was the consequence?

XIV.—(1.) How were magistrates elected by the Syracusan democracy? (2.) What grew up, and what followed? (3.) What afterward took place? (4.) What does the political history of Syracuse teach?

XV.—(1.) From what did the republic of Massilia arise? (2.) What was its form of government? (3.) By whom was chief power exercised? (4.) What is said of the *timuchi*? (5.) Who only could belong to this body? (6.) Who were at the head of the council? (7.) What did three of these constitute? (8.) What was the condition of the Massilian republic?

XVI.—(1.) The republic of TARENTUM grew from a settlement of Dorian Greeks in Italy. (2.) It became rich and prosperous through traffic, but lost its power by the increase of luxury among its citizens. (3.) The government was, at first, a liberal aristocracy, magistrates being selected half by lot and half by a majority of votes in public meeting. (4.) The senate had the power of making war. (5.) When its free institutions became corrupted, Tarentum sunk into a province of Rome.

XVII.—(1.) The republic of CROTON rose from a colony of Achaian Greeks. (2.) Its institutions were democratic, re-organized by the philosopher Pythagoras. (3.) Pythagoras formed a secret association of citizens to improve the government, by educating young native citizens, of capacity, to fill all offices of state. (4.) Members of this secret society were called Pythagoreans, and they spread throughout many cities of Italy.

XVIII.—(1.) The republic of SYBARIS was a Greek settlement, founded, as Croton was, by Achaians, incorporated with the native tribes. (2.) It increased to twenty-five cities, and became noted for wealth and luxury. (3.) All foreigners were admitted to citizenship, so that the republic grew excessively populous.

XIX.—(1.) The Sybarites remained democratic till a foreigner named Telys was elected chief magistrate. (2.) Telys usurped supreme power, and expelled five hundred of the principal native citizens. (3.) The banished citizens fled to the republic of Croton, which espoused their cause. (4.) A war followed, and the Sybarite state was destroyed by the Crotonians.

XVI.—(1.) From what did the republic of Tarentum grow? (2.) What is said of the state? (3.) What was its government? (4.) What power had the Tarentine senate? (5.) What befell Tarentum?

XVII.—(1.) From what did the republic of Croton rise? (2.) What were its institutions? (3.) What did Pythagoras form? (4.) What is said of this society?

XVIII.—(1.) What was the republic of Sybaris? (2.) How did this colony flourish? (3.) Who were its citizens?

XIX.—(1.) What is said of the Sybarite government? (2.) What did this foreigner do? (3.) What became of the banished citizens? (4.) What followed this?

XX.—(1.) The republic of **THURI** was founded by Athenian colonists, near the site of Sybaris. (2.) Many Sybarite families joined the Thurians, and, by means of their wealth, bought all the best lands, and created an oligarchy. (3.) The poorer classes expelled them, and adopted a democratic form of government.

XXI.—(1.) The Grecian republic of **LOCRI**, in Italy, was founded by bands of colonists from all parts of Greece. (2.) These people adopted an aristocratic form of government, placing power in the hands of a hundred select families. (3.) The citizens met in public assembly, and elected a magistrate called a *cosmopolis*, from one of the select families. (4.) They also chose from their own numbers a general senate, of a thousand members, to make the laws.

XXII.—(1.) The republic of **RHEGIUM** arose from a colony of peninsular Greeks. (2.) The government was aristocratic, all power being placed in the hands of a thousand men selected only from Messenian families. (3.) These families grew to be an oligarchy, and afterward a member of one of them found himself able to usurp supreme power. (4.) The state then fell a prey to parties, and sunk at last into a Roman province.

XXIII.—(1.) Most of the Grecian colonies in Europe grew up to be free states, smaller or larger. (2.) They were principally planted on that portion of Gallia now known as Lower Italy. (3.) The principles of republicanism were in this manner spread from Greece to different countries. (4.) The free Grecian cities of Italy formed the pattern for free Italian states in after ages.

XX.—(1.) Who founded the republic of Thuri? (2.) What families joined the Thurians? (3.) What did the poorer classes do?

XXI.—(1.) How did the republic of Locri originate? (2.) What form of government was adopted? (3.) What chief magistrate was elected? (4.) What body was chosen?

XXII.—(1.) From what did the republic of Rhegium rise? (2.) What form of government was adopted? (3.) To what did these families grow? (4.) What was the consequence?

XXIII.—(1.) What is said of Grecian colonies in Europe? (2.) Where were they principally planted? (3.) What resulted from Grecian colonization? (4.) What did the free Grecian cities of Italy form?

XXIV.—(1.) Whenever moderate democratic institutions of the Grecians were allowed fair trial, they were found to insure prosperity in a state. (2.) When corrupted by wealth and ambition, in particular classes or individuals, they became feeble, and dangerous to the people. (3.) The evils of Grecian republics consisted in the luxury of the rich, the dependent condition of poorer citizens, and the practice of holding great numbers of slaves.

XXV.—(1.) The rich obtained possession of all the land. (2.) They were often able to buy the votes of the poor, and could maintain possession of offices and make the laws. (3.) Slaves were depended upon to perform all labors for the rich, and the poor could not command employment. (4.) Poor citizens, who possessed votes, were used as instruments by ambitious men, and often supported by them.

CHAPTER IX.

THE ROMAN COMMONWEALTH.

I.—(1.) THE state of Rome grew from a combination of settlers belonging to several agricultural tribes. (2.) They formed a community on the shores of the Tiber, a river of Italy, and there built a town.

II.—(1.) The earliest inhabitants of Rome adopted a form of government resembling that of Grecian republics. (2.) They es-

XXIV.—(1.) What is said of moderate democratic institutions? (2.) What took place when such institutions became corrupted? (3.) In what did the evils of Grecian republics consist?

XXV.—(1.) What principal cause operated against democracy? (2.) What were the wealthy able to do? (3.) What persons were depended upon as laborers? (4.) What is said of poor citizens?

I.—(1.) From what did Rome grow? (2.) What did the tribes do?

II.—(1.) What form of government was adopted? (2.) What did the people do?

established a body called the senate, and elected a chief, or king, by votes of the people in general assembly.

III.—(1.) The Roman commonwealth was organized with much system, even in its infant years. (2.) Many of its institutions continued to grow stronger as the state advanced in power and population.

IV.—(1.) It was an object with the early settlers of Rome to increase their numbers. (2.) They agreed that all free-born strangers who joined the colony, should enjoy the privileges of citizens.

V.—(1.) At that time the territory occupied by the Romans amounted to about fifty square miles. (2.) The citizens divided this quantity of land, in order to sustain individuals and meet the expenses of a body-politic.

VI.—(1.) They first separated the districts suitable for cultivation, into three unequal proportions. (2.) The smallest portion was reserved for religious purposes. (3.) Temples of the gods, and fields to secure rents and products for support of a priesthood, were included in this reservation.

VII.—(1.) The land comprised in the second part was called the king's land, and devoted to the raising of funds to meet the expense of government. (2.) The third division of soil was considered to belong to the people.

VIII.—(1.) The Roman people were at first separated into three tribes. (2.) Each of these three tribes represented one of the nations that inhabited the country when Rome was founded. (3.) The

III.—(1.) What is said of the Roman commonwealth? (2.) What of its institutions?

IV.—(1.) What was an object, with early settlers? (2.) What did they agree?

V.—(1.) What territory did the Roman settlers occupy? (2.) What did the citizens do with this territory?

VI.—(1.) What divisions did they first make? (2.) For what was the smallest portion reserved? (3.) What were included in the reservation?

VII.—(1.) What was the second portion of land? (2.) To whom was the third division considered to belong?

VIII.—(1.) How were the Romans at first separated? (2.) What did each tribe represent? (3.) What were the names of the three?

first were Sabines, the second Albanes, and the third was composed of all strangers, of various nations.

IX.—(1.) In later times, the tribes of Rome were increased to four, and each took its name from that part of the city where its members lived. (2.) As Rome grew more populous, new sub-divisions were made, till the number of tribes at last reached to thirty-five.

X.—(1.) Every tribe was politically divided into ten parishes, each called a *curia*. (2.) The Roman people were afterward separated into classes of society, to distinguish the higher and lower citizens.

XI.—(1.) The first class was composed of the elder and wealthier citizens of Rome, who were called *patricians*. (2.) The word patrician is derived from *pater* or *patricius*, a father. (3.) Citizens who had the most numerous families, and means to support them all, were distinguished in early days of the republic as most honorable.

XII.—(1.) The first Roman council or senate was selected from the fathers of families. (2.) The word senator has the same meaning as elder. (3.) The first senators, and other officers of the commonwealth, were allowed to call their families patrician families. (4.) The senate consisted, at first, of one hundred, next of two hundred, and afterward of three hundred.

XIII.—(1.) Families whose fathers served in early days as senators, were afterward called *patricii*, and became the aristocratic or higher class of Roman citizens? (2.) The great body of citizens remained *plebeii*, or plebeians, signifying common people.

IX.—(1.) What took place in later times? (2.) What was done as Rome grew populous?

X.—(1.) How was each tribe politically divided? (2.) How were the people afterward separated?

XI.—(1.) Of what was the first class composed? (2.) From what is the word patrician derived? (3.) Who were first distinguished as honorable?

XII.—(1.) From what portion of the community was the first council selected? (2.) What is the meaning of the word senator? (3.) What were the first senators allowed to do? (4.) What number composed the senate?

XIII.—(1.) How did patrician families originate? (2.) What did other citizens remain?

XIV.—(1.) Patricians, in early times, were called patrons, because they patronized or protected the poorer sort of people. (2.) The latter, in return for protection, were glad to pay respect to the former, and follow them as clansmen. (3.) A patron was generally the head of a large number of these followers, who were called his clients. (4.) They were usually remote relations, strangers, persons engaged in industrial trades, and sellers of merchandise.

XV.—(1.) After a patrician class was established, magistrates and officers of the army were mostly chosen from its members. (2.) Certain warriors were selected to defend the city, and each of these was furnished with a horse by the commonwealth. (3.) The horsemen were called the equestrian order, or class of gentlemen. (4.) They were allowed to wear a gold ring, to distinguish them from the common people, who were forbidden to wear such an ornament.

XVI.—(1.) Equestrians were considered next in rank to the senators. (2.) Senators wore a robe marked with large spots of purple silk, and called the *laticlavium*. (3.) Equestrians wore a robe, with smaller spots of purple, called an *angustidavium*. (4.) A senator was generally required to be worth about thirty thousand dollars, in land and slaves. (5.) The property of an equestrian, or gentleman, was expected to be in value about half that sum.

XVII.—(1.) The divisions of aristocracy, in Rome, proceeded from complimentary distinctions originally allowed by the people to certain families. (2.) The founders of such families served the

XIV.—(1.) What other name had patricians? (2.) What is said of poorer citizens? (3.) What was the position of a patron? (4.) What were these clients?

XV.—(1.) What took place after a patrician class was established? (2.) What body was created? (3.) What were these horsemen called? (4.) What were they allowed?

XVI.—(1.) What was the rank of equestrians? (2.) What did senators wear? (3.) What did equestrians wear? (4.) What was a senator required to be worth in property? (5.) What was expected to be the wealth of an equestrian?

XVII.—(1.) From what did the two aristocratic divisions proceed? (2.) What is said regarding the founders of such aristocratic families?

state in various capacities, and were honored, as good citizens and protectors of the community. (3.) Their descendants insisted on maintaining the distinction, and set themselves up as claimants to the principal offices.

XVIII.—(1.) The history of the Roman commonwealth presents a constant struggle between the democracy, or plebeians, and the aristocracy, or patrician orders. (2.) All who boasted descent from the first senators, and first horse-soldiers, of the republic, considered themselves patricians.

XIX.—(1.) Plebeians of Rome were generally comprised under the name *populus*, or the people. (2.) They carried on all occupations and ways of livelihood, that are usual to poorer citizens. (3.) The most respectable of these were traders, manufacturers, artisans, farmers, and herdsmen. (4.) The lower sort were idlers, vagrants, and persons following disreputable courses to gain a subsistence.

XX.—(1.) The privileges, or freedom, of a Roman citizen, could be obtained in three ways. (2.) The first way was by *birthright*, from one or both of the person's parents, and himself also, having been free-born in Rome. (3.) This class of citizens became known as *original citizens*.

XXI.—(1.) The second way of obtaining citizenship, was by receiving it as a gift, in consideration of services rendered, or as a mark of honor conferred. (2.) A foreigner could in this manner be adopted to citizenship. (3.) In latter days of the commonwealth,

(3.) On what did their descendants insist?

XVIII.—(1.) What does Roman history present? (2.) Who claimed to be patricians?

XIX.—(1.) Under what name were plebeians comprised? (2.) What were their occupations? (3.) How were the most respectable employed? (4.) What persons comprised the lower sort?

XX.—(1.) How could privileges or freedom be obtained? (2.) What was the first? (3.) What were such citizens called?

XXI.—(1.) What was the second way of obtaining citizenship? (2.) Who could in this manner become a citizen? (3.) What took place in latter days?

whole nations were sometimes admitted to citizenship by a decree of the senate.

XXII.—(1.) The third method of making a freeman, was by *manumission*, as when a master resigned control over a slave, and gave him a cap, in token of liberty. (2.) A servant obtained his freedom either by serving out his term of indenture, or paying money to his master, or else by gift of his owner. (3.) A manumitted servant was called a freedman.

XXIII.—(1.) The lowest descriptions of Roman population were the bondmen and slaves. (2.) The former comprised individuals bound by indentures or sentence of the courts. (3.) The latter were persons in slavery, and subject to the will of their owners. (4.) The first embraced apprentices, gladiators, and debtors serving for the benefit of creditors. (5.) The latter comprised captives taken in war, or persons bought in the market-place, as property.

XXIV.—(1.) The class of slaves and their descendants became very numerous in Rome. (2.) Slaves had no rights, and could not be witnesses, and their masters had unlimited power over their persons.

XXV.—(1.) When the Roman people were separated into three tribes, the soil settled upon by citizens was divided accordingly. (2.) Each tribe had ten parishes, and the land was allotted in thirty portions, for thirty parishes. (3.) The individuals of each parish then agreed regarding the distribution of the land among themselves.

XXVI.—(1.) The chief of the state was commander of all the

XXII.—(1.) What was the third way of making a freeman? (2.) In what manner did a servant obtain his freedom? (3.) What was a manumitted servant called?

XXIII.—(1.) What persons composed the lowest descriptions of population? (2.) What were the former? (3.) What were the latter? (4.) What did the first comprise? (5.) What did the latter comprise?

XXIV.—(1.) What class became numerous? (2.) What is said of slaves?

XXV.—(1.) What is said of the division of soil? (2.) In what proportion was the land allotted? (3.) What did the individuals do?

XXVI.—(1.) What is said concerning the chief of the Roman state?

militia, or citizens capable of bearing arms. (2.) The chief could not make war without consultation with the elders of the people.

XXVII.—(1.) The chief was head of the priesthood, and directed all services and sacrifices in Roman temples. (2.) Other priests were appointed, to attend the altars of different gods worshipped by the people.

XXVIII.—(1.) Priests and judges of the Romans, at first, consisted of old and respectable members of each tribe. (2.) They were called fathers of the people, and were held in respect by all members of the early community.

XXIX.—(1.) The people who founded Rome embraced persons employed in cultivating land, others who raised flocks, and others engaged in handicraft. (2.) Higher and lower classes grew up, by degrees, out of this common society.

XXX.—(1.) Roman citizens met in general assembly, to cast their votes for senators and other officers, and to approve or reject laws. (2.) In the first years of the state, this assembly was summoned to meet by the king and elders. (3.) Afterward the people fixed certain periods of holding sessions.

XXXI.—(1.) The office of king was abolished at an early date, and two chief magistrates, called *consuls*, were chosen instead. (2.) The senate possessed the power of framing laws, and grew in authority as the commonwealth increased in importance.

XXXII.—(1.) The custom of distinguishing families of senators and knights as honorable, was the only foundation to the claim of

(2.) How was the chief restricted?

XXVII.—(1.) What peculiar position had the chief? (2.) For what were other priests appointed?

XXVIII.—(1.) Who comprised the first judges and priests? (2.) What were they called?

XXIX.—(1.) What class of persons founded Rome? (2.) What is remarked concerning other classes?

XXX.—(1.) For what did Roman citizens assemble? (2.) How was the assembly summoned at first? (3.) What was afterward done?

XXXI.—(1.) What is said of the kingly office? (2.) What of the Roman senate?

XXXII.—(1.) What was the only real claim of patricians to superiority?

those orders to superiority. (2.) By admitting this claim, the people suffered them to encroach upon democratic power and obtain most of the offices.

XXXIII.—(1.) Patricians and knights grew rich, through large grants of lands, taken from neighboring nations subdued by the Romans. (2.) The plebeians possessed very little land, though their class was the most numerous. (3.) The patricians divided nearly all the soil, and bought slaves to cultivate it for their own profit exclusively.

XXXIV.—(1.) The plebeians endeavored to check such increasing power of the patricians, by making a law in relation to holding lands. (2.) This law provided that no person should own more than five hundred acres of land, nor any child more than half that quantity.

XXXV.—(1.) The senate, being composed principally of large landowners, took care that this law should not be enforced strictly. (2.) It fell into disuse, and the nobles became more oppressive toward the people than before.

XXXVI.—(1.) The people elected officers, called *tribunes*, to serve for one year, as their representatives in the government. (2.) These officers were deputed to check the power of the nobles and protect popular interests.

XXXVII.—(1.) A struggle commenced between the plebeian people, who were poor and landless, and the privileged classes, who owned all the wealth, in money, slaves, and productive estates. (2.) This struggle continued during all the time that the republic endured.

(2.) What did the people suffer them to do?

XXXIII.—(1.) How did the higher orders become rich? (2.) What is said of the plebeians? (3.) What did the patricians do with the soil?

XXXIV.—(1.) What did the plebeians endeavor to do? (2.) What did this law provide?

XXXV.—(1.) What did the senate do regarding this law? (2.) What was the consequence?

XXXVI.—(1.) What officers did the people elect? (2.) What were the *tribunes* deputed to do?

XXXVII.—(1.) What commenced in the commonwealth? (2.) How long did this struggle last?

XXXVIII.—(1.) At an early day of the commonwealth, all customs and usages of the people were collected into a system of regulations, called the Laws of the Twelve Tables. (2.) The Laws of the Twelve Tables were compiled by three magistrates appointed for the purpose. (3.) They were ratified by the people in public assembly. (4.) The condition of the popular classes was not much bettered by their operation.

XXXIX.—(1.) One of the laws prohibited marriage relations between patrician and plebeian families. (2.) Another decreed that none but patricians should be chosen consuls. (3.) These two laws were opposed by the plebeians for nearly a hundred years before they could secure their repeal.

XL.—(1.) The reason that patricians had power to prevent the more numerous class of plebeians from changing oppressive laws, was a simple one. (2.) It was because the privileged orders were united as a body, and possessed all the wealth. (3.) They grew able to influence leaders of the people, or to buy a sufficient number of popular votes to carry out their own views, without regarding the interests of plebeians. (4.) The result was, that Roman senators became the instruments or supporters of an exclusive and privileged aristocracy.

XLI.—(1.) While two parties of *patricians* and *plebeians* were struggling in the commonwealth, the Roman republic engaged in wars against neighboring states. (2.) Those states were subdued, one by one, until Rome stood first of all the Italian communities. (3.) Many captives, taken in these wars, were allowed to become citizens of the republic.

XXXVIII.—(1.) What was done at an early day? (2.) How were these laws prepared? (3.) How were they ratified? (4.) What effect did these laws have on the commonwealth?

XXXIX.—(1.) What did one of the laws prohibit? (2.) What did another decree? (3.) What was the result of these two laws?

XL.—(1.) What is said concerning the power of patricians? (2.) What was this reason? (3.) What were they able to do? (4.) What was the result?

XLI.—(1.) What foreign matters occupied the Roman republic? (2.) What followed these wars? (3.) What was allowed to many captives?

XLII.—(1.) The plebeians grew powerful enough to pass a law that one of the two chief magistrates, called consuls, should be elected from their class. (2.) They succeeded in electing other magistrates, at different periods, whenever they united as a body of citizens. (3.) They increased the senate to one thousand, instead of one hundred members, and elected plebeians, as well as knights and patricians, to that body.

XLIII.—(1.) Roman magistrates consisted of all officers who exercised civil, religious, or military authority. (2.) The powers of magistrates were not strictly specified or limited by law. (3.) A senator could be deputed to command a military force, and judges, or financial officers, might belong to the priesthood. (4.) Whenever democracy triumphed in the state, plebeians were chosen to all offices, and sometimes made priests.

XLIV.—(1.) There were two distinct descriptions of magistrates in the Roman commonwealth. (2.) The first were enumerated as consuls, tribunes of the people, censors, ædiles, prætors and quæstors. (3.) These were chosen at regular intervals, and were common under the republican form of government. (4.) They were termed *ordinary* magistrates.

XLV.—(1.) The other description of magistrates comprised dictators, decemviri, military tribunes, and an officer called the interrex. (2.) These functionaries were chosen only in emergencies, and were called *extraordinary* magistrates.

XLVI.—(1.) Roman magistrates were chosen either from the

XLII.—(1.) What law did the plebeians pass? (2.) What did they succeed in doing when united as a body? (3.) How did they modify the senate?

XLIII.—(1.) Of whom did Roman magistrates consist? (2.) What authority had magistrates? (3.) What is said of senators, judges, and other officers? (4.) What occurred when democracy triumphed?

XLIV.—(1.) How many descriptions of magistrates were there? (2.) How were the first enumerated? (3.) What is said of these? (4.) What were they termed?

XLV.—(1.) What did the other descriptions comprise? (2.) What is said of these?

XLVI.—(1.) From what classes or persons were Roman magistrates chosen?

noble classes, or from the people at large. (2.) Those elected from the former were called patrician magistrates; those from the latter, plebeian magistrates.

XLVII.—(1.) Patrician magistrates could claim to be priests. (2.) They possessed power, as such, to dissolve an assembly of the people, if they considered the day of meeting, or other circumstances, to be unlucky.

XLVIII.—(1.) The magistrates called consuls were elected annually, after the last king had been expelled. (2.) Authority was exercised by two alternately—that is, one governed the first month, another the second month. (3.) No citizen was considered eligible to be consul till he was forty-two years old.

XLIX.—(1.) A consul was attended by twelve officers, called *lictors*, or *sergeants*. (2.) Each carried a bundle of birch rods, with an axe in the middle of them. (3.) The rods signified authority to punish small offenders, and the axe denoted power to deal with great criminals.

L.—(1.) The governing consul sat in a chair of state, made of ivory, called the Curule Chair. (2.) He wore a purple gown, richly embroidered, to distinguish him from other magistrates. (3.) The year in which consuls held authority was called by their names.

LI.—(1.) After the creation of consuls, two other officers were appointed by the senate, and called *censors*. (2.) Censors made a registration of the people,* and placed every citizen in the hundred,

(2.) How were they distinguished?

XLVII.—(1.) What could patrician magistrates claim to be? (2.) What power did they possess when priests?

XLVIII.—(1.) When were the consuls elected? (2.) How was authority exercised by them? (3.) When was a citizen not eligible to be consul?

XLIX.—(1.) How was a consul attended? (2.) What did each lictor carry? (3.) What did these emblems signify?

L.—(1.) How was the governing consul distinguished? (2.) What did he wear? (3.) What is said of the year during which consuls held office?

LI.—(1.) What other officers were appointed by the senate? (2.) What

or parish, where he belonged. (3.) They valued each man's property, and had power to inquire into his manner of life. (4.) If a citizen were a bad father or husband, an idler, or loose in his habits, the censors took notice, and could punish him for his faults.

LII.—(1.) Censors remained in office during one *lustrum*, which consisted of five years. (2.) It was their duty to divide and establish tributes, taxes, imposts, and tolls, and make reports at the end of their term. (3.) They were required to be men of the best reputation for virtue.

LIII.—(1.) Two other officers were appointed for the assistance of consuls in government. (2.) These were called *Prætors*, and exercised authority in matters of justice. (3.) One of them judged controversies between citizen and citizen. (4.) The other examined matters of dispute between citizens and foreigners. (5.) The number of prætors was increased with the growth of the commonwealth.

LIV.—(1.) Another Roman magistrate was called the *City Prefect*. (2.) He had authority to decide matters between masters and servants, or orphans and guardians, and buyers and sellers. (3.) This officer, in later times, wielded great powers, and acted as chief magistrate in the absence of the regular head of government.

LV.—(1.) Consuls were at first chosen from the nobility, and none but a noble was considered worthy of the office. (2.) This occasioned violent disputes, until an arrangement was made between the patricians and plebeians.

was the business of censors? (3.) What did they do, and what power had they? (4.) What authority had they over bad citizens?

LII.—(1.) What was a censor's term of office? (2.) What was it their duty to do? (3.) What were they required to be?

LIII.—(1.) Who assisted the consuls? (2.) What is said of these officers? (3.) What did one of them do? (4.) What did the other do? (5.) How was the number of prætors increased?

LIV.—(1.) What was another magistrate called? (2.) What was his authority? (3.) What was the position of this officer in later times?

LV.—(1.) What is said concerning consuls at first? (2.) What did this occasion?

LVI.—(1.) By agreement, the consuls were discontinued, and two chief magistrates were chosen, called Tribunes, or protectors of the people. (2.) They were elected by the assembly of the people.

LVII.—(1.) Tribunes possessed power to stop any proceedings of the senate which they deemed injurious to the people. (2.) They were not allowed a voice in the senate, but sat outside the hall of meeting. (3.) When a law was passed by the senators, it was submitted to the tribunes. (4.) If they did not consider it just, they returned it, and if they approved it, they subscribed the letter T.

LVIII.—(1.) Tribunes kept their houses open by night and day, and were obliged to remain in the city every day in the year. (2.) Citizens who were oppressed or injured could claim protection and shelter in the house of a tribune.

LIX.—(1.) The *Ædiles* were another class of Roman magistrates. (2.) The first ædiles were chosen from the senators. (3.) To these were afterward added plebeian ædiles, elected by the people. (4.) Senatorial ædiles possessed authority one year, and plebeian ædiles the next year.

LX.—(1.) *Ædiles* had charge of repairing public buildings, and supervising the location of private ones. (2.) They inspected weights and measures, and examined frauds and adulterations in provisions and other wares. (3.) They took care of aqueducts and other water-works, and made arrangements for festivals, games, and public ceremonies.

LXI.—(1.) There was another class of ædiles, acting as super-

LVI.—(1.) What was effected by agreement? (2.) How were tribunes elected?

LVII.—(1.) What power had the tribunes? (2.) What were they not allowed? (3.) What part did they take regarding laws? (4.) What did they do?

LVIII.—(1.) What was the custom of tribunes? (2.) What could be claimed of them?

LIX.—(1.) What were the *Ædiles*? (2.) How were the first ædiles chosen? (3.) What were afterward added? (4.) What authority was possessed by each?

LX.—(1.) Of what had ædiles charge? (2.) What else did they do? (3.) What other duties were performed by ædiles?

LXI.—(1.) What is said regarding another class of these Roman ædiles?

intendents of markets, overseeing corn and meats. (2.) They provided for seasons of scarcity, by storing up grains for public benefit.

LXII.—(1.) The *Triumviri*, or *Triumvirs*, were different magisterial bodies, or commissions, of three men each. (2.) One of these committees of three comprised the three high-sheriffs, who took charge of prisons and the punishment of malefactors. (3.) Another commission of three acted as bankers, and had authority to pay poor men's debts out of the public treasury. (4.) Another body of three enlisted soldiers for the army, and another made arrangements for Roman citizens who wished to go out as colonists.

LXIII.—(1.) The first officers sent to govern provinces and colonies received their commissions from the senate. (2.) They were called consuls and prætors, the first being military, and the last civil, heads of provinces. (3.) The consul was commander-in-chief of the soldiers, the prætor chief judge of the people. (4.) Afterward these officers were called *Proconsuls* and *Proprætors*. (5.) There were other provincial officers called quæstors, or treasurers, besides military tribunes, centurions, prefects, and other assistants.

LXIV.—(1.) Roman magistrates, called quæstors, were public treasurers and collectors of revenue. (2.) The tributes, duties, taxes, and all money due from districts, corporations, or individuals, were collected by these officers. (3.) They were called city quæstors, to distinguish them from provincial quæstors. (4.) Plunder taken in war was given in charge to the city quæstors.

LXV.—(1.) A body of *extraordinary* magistrates, called *Decem-*

(2.) What did they provide for?

LXII.—(1.) What were the *triumviri*, or *triumvirs*? (2.) What did one of these committees of three comprise? (3.) What was another? (4.) What were other *triumviri*?

LXIII.—(1.) How were provincial governors commissioned? (2.) What were they called? (3.) What were their distinct positions? (4.) What were these officers afterward named? (5.) What other provincial officers?

LXIV.—(1.) What were the quæstors? (2.) What is said of public moneys? (3.) By what name were they distinguished? (4.) What is said concerning plunder?

LXV.—(1.) What is said concerning the *Decemviri*, or body of Ten Men?

*vir*i, or Ten Men, was established by the Romans between the time of consuls and period of tribunes. (2.) Under the *Decemviri*, the laws of the Twelve Tables were adopted, and written on twelve tablets of brass. (3.) The power of these magistrates was the same that had been exercised by consuls. (4.) One of the ten acted as chief magistrate the first month, another the second, and so on. (5.) These *Decemviri* became oppressive, and their office was abolished in the third year of its existence.

LXVI.—(1.) Another extraordinary magistrate was taken by lot, in times of need, from the senate, to supply a vacancy that might occur in the chief magistracy. (2.) This magistrate was called an *Interrex*, and his authority, while it continued, was the same as the officer whose place he filled.

LXVII.—(1.) The *Dictator* was a chief magistrate chosen in time of sudden war, or when dangers menaced the commonwealth. (2.) The *Dictator* was supreme ruler of the state, and called *Populi Magister*, meaning master of the people. (3.) He was elected for six months, and if necessity continued, could be reelected. (4.) He appointed a lieutenant, called master of the horse, to govern in his absence from the city. (5.) There was no appeal to the people from the acts of a Dictator.

LXVIII.—(1.) There were *military tribunes* holding command in the army, who were generally chosen by the people in their assemblies. (2.) Sometimes they were elected by the soldiers themselves. (3.) They exercised the authority that is in modern times held by *marshals*, or colonels. (4.) Each military tribune commanded a thousand foot soldiers.

(2.) What laws were adopted under them? (3.) What was the authority of the *Decemviri*? (4.) How did the ten magistrates exercise power? (5.) What became of the body of officers?

LXVI.—(1.) What magistrate was chosen by lot? (2.) What is said of this magistrate?

LXVII.—(1.) What was a dictator? (2.) What was his power? (3.) What was his term of office? (4.) What did he appoint? (5.) What is said regarding his acts?

LXVIII.—(1.) What is said of military tribunes? (2.) How were they sometimes chosen? (3.) What authority did they exercise? (4.) How many men did a military tribune command?

LXIX.—(1.) The creation of extraordinary officers, such as dictators and other absolute rulers, occasioned the ruin of the Roman republic. (2.) Unscrupulous men became possessed of unlimited power over the revenues and armies of the state, and used both for their personal aggrandizement.

LXX.—(1.) When Sylla, a Roman general, was made dictator for life, he ruled the state despotically, and established his authority by murdering thousands of his fellow-citizens. (2.) He was the chief of an aristocratic party, overthrowing Marius, a leader of the democracy.

LXXI.—(1.) Julius Cæsar, another Roman general, overcame Pompey, his rival, after a civil war, and was made dictator for life. (2.) He received the title of *Imperator*, or Emperor, as a mark of honor. (3.) *Imperator* was a military title, bestowed on a general who had slain a thousand men in battle.

LXXII.—(1.) After Julius Cæsar's death, a *triumvirate* of magistrates had chief power given to them in the commonwealth for five years. (2.) When five years expired, the *triumvirate* refused to resign their authority. (3.) They possessed power to make new laws, or change old ones, without consulting either senate or people. (4.) They could judge and condemn any Roman at their pleasure.

LXXIII.—(1.) One of this triumvirate succeeded in usurping entire authority, and made himself *Imperator*. (2.) The Roman citizens then lost all voice in choosing their magistrates, and the republic was changed into a monarchy, supported by military force.

LXIX.—(1.) What is said of the extraordinary officers? (2.) Who became thereby possessed of power?

LXX.—(1.) What is said of Sylla? (2.) What position did he hold?

LXXI.—(1.) What is said of Julius Cæsar? (2.) What title was given to him? (3.) What is said of this title?

LXXII.—(1.) What took place after Julius Cæsar's death? (2.) What was the result? (3.) What power did this triumvirate possess? (4.) What could they do?

LXXIII.—(1.) What did one of the triumvirs succeed in doing? (2.) What followed the usurpation?

LXXIV.—(1.) The history of the Roman commonwealth shows what evils arise from the influence of privileged classes. (2.) The distinction yielded to older and wealthier families, and to those who held office, led the descendants of such persons to consider themselves better than the children of poorer people, who had not held office. (3.) This occasioned separation into higher and lower ranks of citizens.

LXXV.—(1.) The next disorder that afflicted the community was the inequality of condition occasioned by luxurious habits of the higher classes. (2.) These habits induced them to buy large estates, and hundreds of slaves to perform all labor for them. (3.) This deprived the poorer citizens of employment, as means of support, and made them dependent on the rich.

LXXVI.—(1.) By degrees, the poorer classes lost their influence, and were stripped of political privileges and rights, one by one. (2.) A nobility obtained control of all offices, and the republic fell into the hands of ambitious soldiers. (3.) At last, it was overturned, to make room for a despotism.

LXXVII.—(1.) When the Roman community was small, every individual claimed a share in government. (2.) Roman citizens met together in the market-place of their city, and gave their votes in a loud voice. (3.) In those meetings, all males over seventeen years old, and under sixty, were allowed to have a voice.

LXXVIII.—(1.) Afterward, the people elected their magistrates by ballot, in a simple way. (2.) The name of every candi-

LXXIV.—(1.) What does the history of the Roman commonwealth show? (2.) What remark is made regarding different families? (3.) What did this occasion?

LXXV.—(1.) What disorder next afflicted the community? (2.) What did these habits induce? (3.) What was the effect of this?

LXXVI.—(1.) What is said of the poorer classes? (2.) What followed? (3.) What was the last consequence?

LXXVII.—(1.) What was the position of an individual when the community was small? (2.) What did Roman citizens do? (3.) Who were allowed a voice?

LXXVIII.—(1.) What afterward took place? (2.) What is said of candi-

date for office was written on a small tablet, and each voter received all the names. (3.) The people then went up to the place of voting by hundreds, each company under leadership of its oldest citizen. (4.) Every voter then cast whatever tablet he liked into a chest as he passed. (5.) The names on all the tablets were afterward examined by appointed tellers, or counters, called *scrutators*. (6.) The citizen whose name was on the greatest number of tablets was declared elected.

LXXIX.—(1.) When a law was proposed to be passed upon by the people, it was written on a large tablet and hung up in the market-place. (2.) There it remained during three market-days, so that all the people might read and think about it. (3.) The citizens were then called together, and each received a small tablet with the letter A. on it, and another with the two letters V. R. on it. (4.) "A." was a vote against the law, and "V. R." a vote in favor of it. (5.) The citizens then marched by the chests and threw in whatever tablets they liked best, each individual for himself. (6.) When the tablets were examined, it became known whether the law was passed or not.

LXXX.—(1.) Every Roman citizen did not have the right of first proposing a law. (2.) Only certain of the principal magistrates enjoyed that privilege. (3.) These principal magistrates had power, likewise, according to their rank, to call meetings of the people, or to adjourn them, if they considered the time unfavorable. (4.) They belonged to the priesthood, and were called *Augurs*.

LXXXI.—(1.) The privilege of adjourning public assemblies was given to priestly magistrates, because of the superstition of the

dates? (3.) What did the people do? (4.) What did each voter then do? (5.) What was afterward done? (6.) What was the result?

LXXIX.—(1.) What is said about a proposed law? (2.) How long did it hang there? (3.) What was then done? (4.) What was signified by those letters? (5.) What did the citizens do with their tablets? (6.) What was the result?

LXXX.—(1.) What is said about proposing a law? (2.) Who enjoyed the privilege? (3.) What other power had they? (4.) What were these magistrates?

LXXXI.—(1.) Why was the privilege of adjourning public meetings given

people. (2.) It was thought that these officers knew what days were unlucky, and the citizens yielded to them the authority to convene or dismiss. (3.) This authority was afterward used to favor the higher classes and oppress the plebeians.

LXXXII.—(1.) There were three kinds of public assemblies among the Romans. (2.) The first were meetings of citizens in their parishes, or *curiæ*, of which there were thirty. (3.) The second were meetings in hundreds, or *centuries*. (4.) The third were assemblies of wards, or tribes.

LXXXIII.—(1.) The earliest Roman political meetings, for choice of officers, or legislation, were assemblies of all the people. (2.) The citizens of each parish followed their principal man to the market-place, and every citizen cast his own vote. (3.) This was a democratic form of exercising the right, and insured popular government.

LXXXIV.—(1.) An alteration of this simple democratic form was made in the time of Tullus Hostilius, third king of Rome. (2.) The people were numbered and divided into hundreds, or *centuries*, and citizens voted by centuries, instead of by each man's ballot.

LXXXV.—(1.) Under Servius Tullius, sixth king, a second encroachment on the people's power was brought about. (2.) The value of every man's property was ascertained, and the whole population was divided, according to property, into six classes.

LXXXVI.—(1.) The first class consisted of citizens who pos-

to priestly magistrates? (2.) What was thought? (3.) In whose favor was this authority exercised?

LXXXII.—(1.) What is said of popular assemblies? (2.) What were the first? (3.) What were the second? (4.) What were the third?

LXXXIII.—(1.) What were the earliest political meetings? (2.) What did the citizens of each parish do? (3.) What is remarked concerning this practice?

LXXXIV.—(1.) When was this simple form changed? (2.) How were the people arranged to vote?

LXXXV.—(1.) What occurred under the sixth Roman king? (2.) What arrangement was made affecting the people?

LXXXVI.—(1.) Of what did the first class of Roman citizens consist?

essed a thousand dollars' worth of property. (2.) There were nine thousand eight hundred citizens in this class. (3.) They were arranged into *eighty* bands, containing a hundred footmen each, and eighteen bands containing a hundred horsemen each. (4.) This formed ninety-eight centuries of citizens, every citizen worth a thousand dollars. (5.) Members of this division were called *classical* citizens, to distinguish them from all other persons.

LXXXVII.—(1.) The next class, or division, comprised all Roman citizens whose property was valued at seven hundred dollars. (2.) This class contained two thousand two hundred citizens, arranged in twenty centuries of footmen, and two centuries of armors and other artists.

LXXXVIII.—(1.) The third class consisted of citizens worth five hundred dollars each. (2.) Of these there were twenty centuries of footmen. (3.) Members of the fourth class were required to be worth two hundred dollars each; this class contained twenty centuries of footmen, and two centuries of musicians, such as trumpeters, drummers, and the like.

LXXXIX.—(1.) The fifth class was composed of citizens who had not less than one hundred dollars in property, and it contained thirty centuries of footmen. (2.) The sixth, or lowest class, consisted of thriftless poor men, who owned nothing, of whom there was about one century.

XC.—(1.) All these classes together composed the army, or militia, of the republic. (2.) Half the centuries in each class were made up of young men, who could go out to war, and the other half

(2.) How many were there? (3.) How were they arranged? (4.) What did this form? (5.) What were these citizens called?

LXXXVII.—(1.) What did the next class comprise? (2.) How many citizens were there in this class?

LXXXVIII.—(1.) Of what did the third class consist? (2.) How many centuries were in it? (3.) What is said of the fourth class?

LXXXIX.—(1.) Who comprised the fifth class? (2.) What was the character of the sixth class?

XC.—(1.) What did all these classes together compose? (2.) How were the centuries classified, as regarded the old men and the young men?

of old men, who could defend the city at home. (3.) The commander of each hundred was called a *centurion*.

XCII.—(1.) In casting ballots, a vote was first taken among all the members of a century. (2.) If a majority of all voted for a particular person, or law, this was considered the choice of the entire hundred. (3.) Each century then cast its united vote according as the decision had been. (4.) The wealthiest class of citizens, containing ninety-eight centuries, had ninety-eight votes, when the ballot was taken by hundreds. (5.) It possessed the privilege, or prerogative, of casting its votes before the other five classes.

XCIII.—(1.) The other five classes, altogether, contained only ninety-three centuries, and could cast but ninety-three votes. (2.) If the centuries of the first class agreed for or against a candidate or a law, they could outvote all the rest of the people. (3.) If centuries of the first class voted similarly, the other classes were not called to vote at all.

XCIII.—(1.) When the people became more numerous, they ordained that the right of *prerogative*, or voting first, should be determined by casting lots. (2.) A century which drew the first lot gained the privilege of voting first, and the wealthier centuries followed. (3.) The rich classes were usually combined, and able to carry elections against the poorer people, even when the latter comprised a larger number of citizens.

XCIV.—(1.) The freedom and independence of a Roman citizen depended upon his being allowed to vote and speak as an individual in the popular assembly. (2.) Privileges and rights consisted in

(3.) What was the captain of each hundred called?

XCII.—(1.) What is said about casting ballots? (2.) What is said of a majority of the century? (3.) What did each century then do? (4.) How many votes had the first class of citizens? (5.) What peculiar privilege did it possess?

XCIII.—(1.) What is said of the other five classes? (2.) What was the consequence? (3.) What if centuries of the first class all voted alike?

XCIII.—(1.) What took place when the people became more numerous? (2.) How did this result? (3.) What is said of the wealthier classes?

XCIV.—(1.) On what did a Roman's freedom and independence depend? (2.) What constituted his privileges and rights as an original citizen?

his admission to office and equality before the laws. (3.) All these blessings were lost to the Roman people because they became indifferent to their value. (4.) They permitted the power to pass from their hands whilst they quarrelled among themselves. (5.) They allowed classes to grow up with distinct interests, dividing one from another. (6.) Consequently, when a dictator, or other despot, oppressed them, they were destitute of the combination necessary to overthrow his power.

(3.) What occasioned the loss of these blessings? (4.) What did the Roman people permit? (5.) What did they allow? (6.) What was the consequence of this?

ANCIENT MONARCHICAL SYSTEMS OF GOVERNMENT.

CHAPTER I.

THE ASSYRIAN DESPOTIC MONARCHY.

I.—(1.) **ASHUR**, the son of **Shem**, settled on a plain called **Shinar**, with his family and descendants, and their flocks. (2.) **Nimrod**, the grandson of **Ham**, wandered through the wilderness, living as a hunter. (3.) After **Ashur** and his people had cultivated the land in which they dwelt, and were living a peaceful life, **Nimrod** came upon them, with his wild followers, and took possession of the country.

II.—(1.) The nation of **Assyrians** was founded by the children of **Shem**, and afterward the descendants of **Ham** came from the wilderness and shared the land with them. (2.) Several cities were erected upon the plain of **Shinar**. (3.) **Babylon** was the principal of these cities, and became the capital of the **Assyrian** empire. (4.) It was built by **Nimrod**, who made himself master of the territory.

III.—(1.) **Ashur** emigrated from **Babylon**, with his family and many followers. (2.) He settled another part of the country, and founded the city of **Nineveh**. (3.) The future **Assyrian** nation thus

I.—(1.) What is said of **Ashur**? (2.) Of **Nimrod**? (3.) What did **Nimrod** do to **Ashur**?

II.—(1.) What is said of the **Assyrians**? (2.) What were erected? (3.) What was the principal city? (4.) Who built it?

III.—(1.) What did **Ashur** do? (2.) What city did he found? (3.) What

sprang from two families that had increased to tribes. (4.) One of these tribes was composed of people who tilled the ground, and raised flocks and herds. (5.) The other tribe was a nomadic, or wandering tribe, subsisting by the chase.

IV.—(1.) The settled tribe became farmers, laborers, and shepherds, building towns, and houses, and cultivating the soil. (2.) The hunter-men were soldiers, or defenders of the settlers, and grew to be most powerful. (3.) Nimrod, patriarch of the hunters, was probably the bravest and strongest man of all his people. (4.) They were, therefore, willing to obey him as a chief, as well as a father of the tribe.

V.—(1.) When Nimrod became chief, or king of the two tribes, he chose his officers from the tribe of hunters, who were his own descendants. (2.) These he set over the settled tribe as governors of tens, hundreds, and thousands. (3.) When Nimrod died, he left his eldest son to be chief ruler or king, in his place. (4.) Thus the government was continued as a hereditary monarchy, passing from father to son.

VI.—(1.) In the course of time, the Assyrian kingdom augmented in the number of its people, and became a very powerful state. (2.) It was joined also by a small nomadic tribe called Chaldeans, descendants of Arphaxad, one of the sons of Shem. (3.) These Chaldeans were more intelligent than the two original Assyrian tribes. (4.) They were a shepherd people, who came from the mountainous regions, and pretended to be descended from the gods.

VII.—(1.) The Chaldeans taught the people of Assyria that the

is said of the future Assyrian nation? (4.) Of what was one tribe composed? (5.) What was the other?

IV.—(1.) What is said of the settled tribe? (2.) Of the hunter tribe? (3.) What was Nimrod? (4.) What were his people willing to do?

V.—(1.) Who were Nimrod's officers? (2.) How did he arrange them? (3.) What did Nimrod leave? (4.) What did the government become?

VI.—(1.) What did the kingdom become? (2.) By whom was it joined? (3.) What is said of the Chaldeans? (4.) Whence did they come?

VII.—(1.) What did the Chaldeans teach to the people of Assyria?

moon and stars were abodes of superior beings, who had charge of the world. (2.) They said that the souls of kings and heroes would go to those heavenly bodies after death, and become gods of the Assyrians. (3.) They taught also that a principal god, and a multitude of inferior gods, dwelt in the planets. (4.) They declared it right to worship them all, and to build altars for the offering of sacrifice.

VIII.—(1.) The Assyrian kings and warriors believed what the strangers taught, and made inferior people erect altars and build houses near them for the Chaldeans to live in. (2.) The Chaldeans became a priestly family, or sacerdotal tribe of the Assyrians. (3.) The houses built for their residence near the altars were called temples of the gods, and the priests were regarded as special servants of those deities.

IX.—(1.) The Chaldean priests were supported by offerings which the people brought to their temples. (2.) They instructed the children of the king and chief warriors, and were selected by the monarch as his counsellors and keepers of records. (3.) They carefully kept apart from all other people, and devoted themselves to study. (4.) They examined into all the ancient customs of the nation, and collected them together in sacred books. (5.) The Chaldeans thus became depositories and interpreters of law, and gained great influence with both rulers and people.

X.—(1.) When the Assyrian nation grew powerful, the kings were accustomed to lead out large armies against neighboring tribes. (2.) In this way they extended the empire, by adding conquered countries to their own. (3.) The king of Assyria dwelt in one of

(2.) What did they say concerning souls of kings and heroes? (3.) What did they teach concerning gods? (4.) What did they declare to be right?

VIII.—(1.) What did the Assyrians do? (2.) What did the Chaldeans become? (3.) What were their dwellings called, and how were they regarded themselves?

IX.—(1.) How were the Chaldean priests supported? (2.) What stations did they hold? (3.) How were the Chaldean priests distinguished? (4.) What did they do regarding laws? (5.) What did they thus become?

X.—(1.) What was the custom of Assyrian kings? (2.) What did they accomplish? (3.) What is remarked concerning the mode of life pursued by

his great cities, surrounded by chief officers, priests, and warriors. (4.) He appointed or removed these officers at will, and was venerated as representative of the nation's gods.

XI.—(1.) The king set princes of his own family, or chief favorites, over all subject countries. (2.) He appointed governors of provinces from principal Assyrian families, or from his personal servants. (3.) Generals of his army were chosen from the most faithful soldiers. (4.) Over cities were set rulers, who appointed inferior officers, as judges and sheriffs.

XII.—(1.) A royal treasurer was placed in every subject country or province, with officers to collect tribute, or taxes, of the people. (2.) Every provincial ruler was assisted and watched by one or more counsellors appointed by the king. (3.) Chaldeans filled many offices, and devoted themselves to the study of astronomy and other sciences, interpretation of dreams, and prophesying.

XIII.—(1.) Next to the king himself was a prime minister, or chief ruler, who was responsible with his life for fidelity to the monarch. (2.) Under this chief ruler there were three presidents, or princes, who had charge of three great departments of the empire. (3.) Under the presidents were princes of provinces and governors.

XIV.—(1.) Members of the priesthood were subject to the king, as well as the princes and people. (2.) The monarch possessed power of life and death over every inhabitant of his empire.

XV.—(1.) During the reigns of Assyrian kings, they subjected a great number of countries to their sway. (2.) Sometimes they

the king? (4.) What is said of the monarch's power and position?

XI.—(1.) What chief rulers did the king appoint? (2.) What other governors? (3.) Who were his generals? (4.) How were cities governed?

XII.—(1.) What was placed in every subject country? (2.) How were provincial rulers assisted? (3.) What is said of the Chaldeans?

XIII.—(1.) Who was next to the king? (2.) Who were under this chief ruler? (3.) Who were under the presidents?

XIV.—(1.) What is said of the priesthood? (2.) What power did the monarch possess?

XV.—(1.) What did the Assyrian kings do? (2.) What did they sometimes

made all the inhabitants of such countries their captives, and brought them from their own homes to labor as servants in the land of Assyria. (3.) Usually, however, the conquered people were allowed to remain as before, provided they paid tribute to rulers set over them.

XVI.—(1.) The ancient Assyrian empire was overthrown in the time of Daniel, the Hebrew prophet, as we learn from Scripture. (2.) In its earliest condition, the Assyrian nation was innocent and simple, but the greater part of its population ignorant and feeble. (3.) They became an easy prey to an invading horde of roving soldiers.

XVII.—(1.) The laboring and agricultural tribes sank to inferiority, while the hunter tribe formed a class above them, headed by a despotic chief. (2.) The seeds of decay were planted in the Assyrian nation in its earliest infancy. (3.) The disease of despotism fastened upon the people, and grew stronger as the empire increased, by means of conquest and extension of territory.



CHAPTER II.

THE MEDEAN DESPOTISM.

I.—(1.) The Medean nation was descended from one of the descendants of Japhet, the eldest son of Noah. (2.) The original family was nomadic, and branched off into six tribes, which roved between the Caspian Sea and Mt. Taurus.

II.—(1.) Each Medean tribe was governed by a patriarch or

do to the inhabitants? (3.) What was their usual practice?

XVI.—(1.) When was the Assyrian empire overthrown? (2.) What is said of the Assyrian nation? (3.) What did the people become?

XVII.—1.) What distinctions were made between tribes? (2.) When did decay attack the nation? (3.) What is said of despotism?

I.—(1.) From whom was the Medean nation descended? (2.) What was the original family?

II.—1.) How was each tribe of the Medean family, or nation, governed?

chief elected by the people. (2.) He was the leader in war, and judge in time of peace. (3.) During the reigns of Assyrian kings, the Medes were obliged to pay tribute to those despots.

III.—(1.) The tribes settled, at length, in villages, and devoted themselves to cultivating the earth and raising flocks. (2.) Different communities were not always governed well by their judges, some being unjust and others tyrannical.

IV.—(1.) The judge of one of the tribes was Dejoces, who was a wise and politic man. (2.) His judgments were so excellent, that he reconciled all the people of his tribe, and made the village in which he lived a model of order.

V.—(1.) The reputation of Dejoces spread through all the tribes, and people came from every village to bring their disputes to be decided by his wisdom. (2.) In this way, he became the most respected man among all the Median people.

VI.—(1.) When Dejoces found himself so much sought, and that his countrymen thought him the wisest of men, he suddenly resigned his position as judge. (2.) He declared that the duties were too hard to perform, and interfered with his domestic interest.

VII.—(1.) He advised the tribes to meet together in council, and consult for themselves concerning the best way of deciding disputes and adjusting differences. (2.) A great meeting was therefore called, composed of all the Medes.

VIII.—(1.) Dejoces did not go to the council, but took care to have his friends there. (2.) These friends proposed that the tribes

(2.) What authority had the chief? (3.) What were the Medes obliged to do?

III.—(1.) What did the tribes do? (2.) What is said of different communities?

IV.—(1.) Who was Dejoces? (2.) What is said of his judgments?

V.—(1.) What was the consequence of the judge's wisdom? (2.) What did Dejoces become?

VI.—(1.) What did Dejoces then do? (2.) What did he declare?

VII.—(1.) What advice did Dejoces give the tribes? (2.) What was called?

VIII.—(1.) What course did Dejoces pursue? (2.) What did his friends

should continue in one nation, and choose Dejoces to be its king. (3.) The Medes agreed to this, and elected Dejoces, who thereupon became monarch.

IX.—(1.) When Dejoces became king, he called upon his countrymen to build him a palace, strongly fortified. (2.) He surrounded himself with a strong guard, of his own relatives and personal friends, to secure his authority.

X.—(1.) From the interior of his palace, Dejoces sent out his commands, to be obeyed as laws. (2.) He fixed certain days on which to hear causes, and never appeared before the people except with great ceremony.

XI.—(1.) Dejoces built great cities and temples, and consolidated the six tribes. (2.) His successors led the people to war, and became despotic rulers, subjugating other countries, and extending the Medean territory. (3.) The Medes became masters of the Assyrian empire, but were afterward deprived of their own independence. (4.) Their country sank, at last, into a province of the Persian empire, established by Cyrus the Great.

XII.—(1.) The Medes, in infancy, were a peaceful, wandering people, but afterward became warlike and predatory. (2.) Each individual preserved a rude freedom, until the cunning of one of their rulers secured the supreme power. (3.) The tribes then became divided into clans, and were no longer a united people of free individuals.

XIII.—(1.) When the Medean tribes submitted to a single king,

propose? (3.) What was agreed upon?

IX.—(1.) What did their new king ask the Medes to do? (2.) How did he strengthen his power?

X.—(1.) What did Dejoces then do? (2.) How did he conduct himself toward the nation?

XI.—(1.) What did Dejoces accomplish? (2.) What was done by his successors? (3.) What occurred to the Medes? (4.) What was the fate of their country?

XII.—(1.) What is said concerning the Medes? (2.) What of each individual? (3.) What did the tribes then become?

XIII.—(1.) What followed the choice of a king over the Medean tribes?

they became a nation of conquerors, oppressing weaker states. (2.) The effect of this was to make them luxurious tyrants, who forced their captive enemies to perform all labor for their support.

XIV.—(1.) Medean history shows how independent and hardy tribes were brought under national government and made powerful. (2.) It also shows how such a nation was corrupted by success in war, until it became feeble, and yielded its own independence without a struggle.



CHAPTER III.

THE PERSIAN DESPOTISM.

I.—(1.) THE Persians were a nomadic people, occupying mountainous regions of Central Asia, and divided into ten clans. (2.) Three clans composed the fighting men, three were tillers of the earth, and four were keepers of sheep. (3.) The earliest government of each clan or tribe was patriarchal.

II.—(1.) The three soldier tribes were distinguished from each other by being more or less intelligent. (2.) They were united under a single chief, in time of war, and were always superiors of the other seven tribes.

III.—(1.) Cyrus, elected chief of the principal tribe, was the first who led the whole nation on a great expedition. (2.) Under this chief, the ten tribes revolted against Medean government, and overthrew the Assyrian empire.

(2.) What was the effect of this?

XIV.—(1.) What does Medean history show? (2.) What else does it show?

I.—(1.) Who were the Persians? (2.) How were the ten clans divided? (3.) What was the government of each?

II.—(1.) How were the soldier-tribes distinguished from each other? (2.) How were they united in time of war, and what was their condition?

III.—(1.) Who was Cyrus? (2.) What did the Persians do under Cyrus?

IV.—(1.) Cyrus took the title of king of the Persians, and established a great military monarchy. (2.) He placed his countrymen in all positions of authority. (3.) He distributed Persian generals and officers throughout the whole empire. (4.) He formed large armies of Assyrians, Medes, and other subject people.

V.—(1.) Under Cambyzes and Darius, the Persian state became a despotism, and was divided into extensive districts. (2.) These districts were called satrapies, each governed by a royal officer called a satrap.

VI.—(1.) The king of Persia claimed unlimited authority over all his subjects, high and low. (2.) He issued edicts, which at once became laws, for his officers to execute, and his subjects to obey. (3.) He was supreme judge in all concerns of government and people.

VII.—(1.) The despot of Persia was called *the Great King*. (2.) His person was held sacred as a divinity, and was approached by all with adoring respect.

VIII.—(1.) The Persians venerated a body of priesthood called *Magians*, or wise men. (2.) These wise men were teachers of the people, as the Chaldeans had been, among Assyrians and Medes.

IX.—(1.) The Magians kept the sacred books of Persian religion and laws. (2.) They always remained a distinct tribe, not mingling with other tribes or people.

X.—(1.) The king selected counsellors, and appointed judges, from the Magian priesthood. (2.) Local judges held tribunals in

IV.—(1) What is said of Cyrus? (2.) What did he do? (3.) What did he distribute? (4.) What did he form?

V.—(1.) What took place under Cambyzes and Darius? (2.) What were these districts called, and how governed?

VI.—(1.) What did the king of Persia claim? (2.) What were his edicts? (3.) What was his authority?

VII.—(1.) What was the Persian despot's title? (2.) How was his person regarded?

VIII.—(1.) Who were the Magians? (2.) What were these wise men?

IX.—(1.) What did the Magians keep? (2.) What did they always remain?

X.—(1.) Who were the king's counsellors and judges? (2.) What is said of judges?

every city and district, and higher judges made regular journeys through provinces, to hear and determine difficult causes.

XI.—(1.) The Great King was always surrounded by ministers, favorites and flatterers. (2.) A rigid system of ceremony was maintained, to which all submitted who approached the royal presence.

XII.—(1.) Courtiers, masters of ceremony, guards and slaves, crowded all the passages of the king's palace. (2.) It was through their influence only that a stranger could approach their master.

XIII.—(1.) Rulers were placed over cities, towns, and parts of towns. (2.) These were appointed by the satrap who governed the province over them, and were accountable to him.

XIV.—(1.) Messengers constantly travelled throughout the empire, to discover new delicacies for the king's table, furniture for his palace, and garments or ornaments for his wear. (2.) The choice of everything produced in any province belonged to the king. (3.) It was secured for him by the satraps and rulers, without regard to expense of treasure or life.

XV.—(1.) The court and palace of every satrap were modelled after that of the Great King. (2.) Governors and rulers under a satrap were required to pay him almost royal honors.

XVI.—(1.) Inhabitants of nations under Persian rule were obliged to pay a tax for the support of the king, and to maintain his governors and rulers. (2.) The Persian tribes alone were free from tax, being masters of the rest.

XVII.—(1.) When the Great King wished to distinguish or re-

XI.—(1.) Who surrounded the Great King? (2.) What system was maintained?

XII.—(1.) Who crowded the royal palace? (2.) What is said of these?

XIII.—(1.) Where were rulers placed? (2.) By whom were they appointed?

XIV.—(1.) For what did messengers traverse the empire? (2.) What belonged to the king? (3.) How was it secured?

XV.—(1.) What is said of a satrap's court? (2.) What of his subordinates?

XVI.—(1.) What were subjects obliged to do? (2.) Who were exempt from this tax?

XVII.—(1.) How were favorites of the Persian Great King rewarded?

ward a favorite, he sent him to govern a rich province, as satrap. (2.) The satrap was receiver of taxes, paymaster of the troops, and representative of his master over the people.

XVIII.—(1.) A military officer was appointed by the king, as general over the army of every satrapy. (2.) This officer was accountable to the monarch, for security and order in the province where he held command.

XIX.—(1.) Scribes, or secretaries, were sent by the king, to reside in the palace of every satrap. (2.) These scribes acted as spies and agents of the monarch, and communicated his commands to the satrap. (3.) The satrap was obliged to obey those commands, whatever they might be, or else suffer death.

XX.—(1.) The Great King sent out military commissioners, every year, to travel through all the empire, with an army of faithful soldiers. (2.) These commissioners possessed authority to inquire into the management of provinces, and to punish or commend the satraps, according to their deserts.

XXI.—(1.) Sometimes a satrap became popular and powerful enough to revolt against the Great King, and set up an independent despotism over his own province. (2.) When such a revolt took place, the king marched with a large army, from other satrapies, to punish the rebellious ones.

XXII.—(1.) Common people of the Persian empire were numbered by tens, each ten having a captain. (2.) Over these were captains of hundreds, thousands, and ten thousands. (3.) The generals appointed the commanders of ten thousands and thousands.

(2.) What position did a satrap occupy?

XVIII.—(1.) What was appointed in every satrapy? (2.) How was this officer accountable?

XIX.—(1.) Who resided in every satrap's palace? (2.) What was their conduct? (3.) What is said of the royal commands?

XX.—(1.) What did the king send out yearly? (2.) What authority had these?

XXI.—(1.) What did a satrap sometimes become? (2.) What did the king do?

XXII.—(1.) How were Persian subjects numbered? (2.) Who were set over these? (3.) What commanders did the Persian generals appoint to office?

(4.) The commanders of ten thousands appointed the captains of hundreds and tens.

XXIII.—(1.) Being thus disciplined, the Persian armies could be mustered for war very quickly. (2.) Military officers were always Persians, other nations being regarded as bondsmen to the ruling tribes.

XXIV.—(1.) The great Persian despotism was controlled by one leading people. (2.) The original Persians, being a brave and vigorous race of men, maintained mastery over less warlike nations.

XXV.—(1.) The Persian empire was an extensive military despotism, established by conquest, and sustained by force. (2.) Unlimited sovereignty in the king, and un murmuring obedience by the people, were its characteristics.

XXVI.—(1.) The Persian tribes, before the time of Cyrus, were a rude and barbarous people, dwelling among rocks and barren hills. (2.) Their clothing was skins, their food wild fruits, their drink water.

XXVII.—(1.) In the course of a few reigns of Persian kings over rich countries, the nation lost its simple habits, and became corrupted by luxury and power. (2.) The ruling tribes grew to be haughty tyrants over inferiors, and servile followers of their despotic monarch.

XXVIII.—(1.) On this account, the Persian state became diseased, and ready to decay. (2.) It was destroyed, in its turn, as

(4.) Who did the commanders of ten thousand appoint?

XXIII.—(1.) What was the consequence of this discipline? (2.) What were the officers?

XXIV.—(1.) What is said of the Persian despotism? (2.) Who were the masters?

XXV.—(1.) What was the Persian empire? (2.) What were its characteristics?

XXVI.—(1.) What were the Persian tribes before Cyrus? (2.) What was their condition?

XXVII.—(1.) What took place afterward? (2.) What did the ruling tribes become?

XXVIII.—(1.) What was the consequence? (2.) What befell the empire?

is had overthrown the Median empire. (3.) Alexander the Great made Persia a province of his Macedonian empire. (4.) After Alexander's death, it fell under various masters, till the Mohammedan nations at last subdued it.

CHAPTER IV.

MACEDONIAN MILITARY MONARCHY.

I.—(1.) THE military empire of Alexander the Great arose from a small sovereignty called Macedon. (2.) Macedon was originally a colony of Grecians from Argos, who settled among the native barbarous tribes, and became ruling families, or nobility, of the communities which they founded.

II.—(1.) The district of country occupied by Macedonians formed a boundary line of Europe and Asia. (2.) They were often obliged to pay tribute to the despots of Assyria, and afterward of Persia.

III.—(1.) The government of Macedon was oligarchical. (2.) A few families of the nobility held all chief offices, and regarded their king as only first among themselves. (3.) The authority of the king was merely that of a military leader, but it descended from father to son.

IV.—(1.) When Philip succeeded to the throne of Macedon, the state was divided by factions, and threatened by foreign war. (2.) Philip created a new military force, called the Macedonian

(3.) What was the fate of Persia? (4.) What became of the country after Alexander?

I.—(1.) From what did Alexander's empire arise? (2.) What was Macedon?

II.—(1.) What is said of the Macedonian territory? (2.) What were the Macedonians often obliged to do?

III.—(1.) What form of government had Macedon? (2.) Who controlled it? (3.) What was the king's authority?

IV.—(1.) What was the condition of Macedon when Philip became king? (2.) What did Philip do?

phalanx, and obliged herdsmen and farmers of his country to become soldiers.

V.—(1.) When he grew strong enough, Philip declared war against several neighboring cities, and made them tributary to Macedon. (2.) He then contrived to have Macedon acknowledged by Athens, Sparta, and other Grecian republics, as a member of the Amphictyonic League, or Confederacy of Grecian States.

VI.—(1.) Philip became noted as an able military commander, and was chosen chief of all armies raised by confederated Greek republics, to defend their territories against the Persians. (2.) In this manner the Macedonian king was able to exert a commanding influence in Grecian affairs.

VII.—(1.) He established a body-guard, composed of members of the Macedonian nobility, and organized a squadron of horse soldiers, from warriors of Thrace, a conquered country. (2.) After his death, the government of Macedon descended to his son, Alexander, afterward called "the Great."

VIII.—(1.) Alexander consolidated all the states under his control into a military monarchy. (2.) He placed Macedonian nobles in chief places of trust and authority. (3.) He collected a numerous and well-disciplined army, and prepared to make war against other countries.

IX.—(1.) Alexander subjected Greece to his authority, and destroyed the Phœnician city of Tyre. (2.) He conquered the Egyptians and Persians, and led a powerful army against Northern India. (3.) Wherever he carried his arms, he was victorious, and placed Macedonian governors to rule over subject countries.

V.—(1.) What did Philip accomplish? (2.) What else did he achieve?

VI.—(1.) To what station was Philip chosen by the Grecian states? (2.) What was the consequence?

VII.—(1.) What new forces did Philip organize? (2.) Who succeeded Philip as king of Macedon?

VIII.—(1.) What did Alexander do? (2.) How did he govern them? (3.) What did he collect?

IX.—(1.) What were Alexander's first conquests? (2.) What next did he do? (3.) What was his success?

X.—(1.) Alexander established his seat of empire at Babylon, and adopted the ancient costume and luxurious habits of Assyrian kings. (2.) He died at the height of power, and Macedonian despotism became broken into fragments. (3.) Governors and generals of the Conqueror divided the different provinces among themselves.

XI.—(1.) In the space of a single lifetime, the Macedonian state arose from a small union of pastoral tribes, to be a great despotic power. (2.) It controlled mighty armies, and overthrew ancient dynasties. (3.) In the lapse of another generation, all its possessions were lost. (4.) Thirty years after Alexander's death, not one of his kindred or family remained upon the earth.

XII.—(1.) Macedon remained chief among Grecian states, and sought to deprive various republics of the remnant of freedom which they retained. (2.) This brought the Macedonians into conflict with a superior power, and their state was soon after made a Roman province.

CHAPTER V.

THE ROMAN EMPIRE.

I.—(1.) THE appointment of Octavius Cæsar as first magistrate of the Roman state, during life, ended the republican form of government in Rome. (2.) Supreme power was yielded by senate and people into the hands of a single individual.

X.—(1.) Where did Alexander establish his seat of government? (2.) What took place? (3.) How was the Macedonian empire divided?

XI.—(1.) What is said of the Macedonian state? (2.) What did it accomplish as such? (3.) What speedily followed? (4.) What is said of Alexander's family?

XII.—(1.) What did Macedon remain, and what attempt? (2.) What was the result of the attempt?

I.—(1.) How was the Roman republic ended? (2.) What was done by this appointment?

II.—(1.) Octavius was declared consul forever, and, by decree of the senate, his person was rendered sacred from approach. (2.) The titles of *Imperator* and *Augustus* were conferred on him, and he was made *pontifex maximus*, or high-priest. (3.) He was granted the authority of *censor*, and clothed with dictatorial privileges and power.

III.—(1.) Octavius endeavored to avoid the appearance of wielding usurped power, by accepting his offices and titles for a term of years, renewed constantly. (2.) At his death, the imperial power passed quietly to his son.

IV.—(1.) The senate remained a permanent body in the state, but its influence departed with the popular independence, from which it was originally created. (2.) A secret council of favorites, selected by the emperor, determined all principal matters of public importance.

V.—(1.) The office of *City Praefect*, or lieutenant of the city, was placed under control of the emperor. (2.) Another office was made permanent, having charge of provisions in the city. (3.) Many new places were created by the emperor, to reward his friends and dependents.

VI.—(1.) The militia of the Roman commonwealth gave place to standing armies, composed of foreigners, hired to fight the emperor's battles. (2.) All military officers were appointed by the emperor. (3.) The soil formerly owned by the state, and all new territories seized from subject nations, were declared crown-lands.

II.—(1.) What is said of Octavius? (2.) What titles and office were given to him? (3.) What authority was yielded to him?

III.—(1.) What did Octavius endeavor to avoid? (2.) What took place at his death?

IV.—(1.) What became of the Roman senate? (2.) What other body was created?

V.—(1.) What office was placed under the emperor's control? (2.) What other office was made permanent? (3.) What is said of more offices?

VI.—(1.) To what did the Roman militia give place? (2.) Who appointed military officers? (3.) What is said concerning the soil?

VII.—(1.) Taxes and revenues from the provinces, and spoils of war, were paid into the imperial treasury. (2.) The emperor controlled finances, armies, and most of the civil offices of state.

VIII.—(1.) Assemblies of the people continued to be held, but their ancient power was wholly transferred to the senate. (2.) The senate remained the highest tribunal of state, but was always under control of the emperor. (3.) It became the instrument of tyranny whenever a despotic sovereign was at the head of government.

IX.—(1.) The history of Rome, after the fall of her republican system, is a history of arbitrary rule, exercised by magistrates, and abject submission on the part of the people. (2.) The ancient authority of a senate dwindled to mere ceremony. (3.) The emperors relied on mercenary armies to support their tyranny. (4.) The soldiery of Rome grew powerful enough to raise their generals to the throne or depose them, whenever they pleased.

X.—(1.) The Roman state became a military despotism, and the seat of government was removed from Italy to Byzantium, on the Black Sea. (2.) A new division of the empire was made, with four prefectures. (3.) Each prefecture was separated into dioceses, and the dioceses subdivided into provinces.

XI.—(1.) An officer called a prætorian prefect was appointed over each prefecture. (2.) Under this officer were placed pro-consuls and presidents, over dioceses and provinces. (3.) These various governors were responsible to the emperor only.

XII.—(1.) The emperor constantly created new offices, to favor his high servants or court. (2.) A grand-chamberlain was chief of

VII.—(1.) What became of revenues? (2.) What did the emperor control?

VIII.—(1.) What is said of assemblies of the people? (2.) What did the senate remain? (3.) What did it become?

IX.—(1.) What is the history of imperial Rome? (2.) What became of the senate's authority? (3.) On what did the emperors rely? (4.) What is said of the soldiery?

X.—(1.) What afterward took place? (2.) What new division was made? (3.) How were the prefectures divided?

XI.—(1.) What was placed over each prefecture? (2.) Who were his subordinates? (3.) To whom were these responsible?

XII.—(1.) What did the emperor constantly do? (2.) What is said of

the sovereign's household officers. (3.) A chancellor, or minister of the interior, had charge of tribunals and civil offices within the empire. (4.) A grand-treasurer, or minister of finance, was intrusted with the collection and custody of public revenues. (5.) A quæstor, or advocate-general, was the emperor's minister of justice and secretary. (6.) A privy-treasurer was an officer who provided for the sovereign's personal expenses. (7.) Two commanders had charge of the emperor's guards; and several other military chiefs were known as masters of the infantry, masters of the horse, *comites*, or counts, and *duces*, or dukes. (8.) At the head of the army was a general, responsible to the emperor.

XIII.—(1.) All inhabited provinces, under imperial dominion, were subject to severe taxation. (2.) Taxes were levied on all who owned land or property in cities, and on articles of commerce, public highways, water-works, and every kind of improvement.

XIV.—(1.) Roman government became corrupted in all departments of its administration. (2.) The mass of the people sank into ignorance and hopeless servitude. (3.) Ambitious military leaders arose everywhere, and foreign invaders swarmed upon the rich provinces of Italy, Spain, and the East. (4.) At length, the empire fell asunder, and two absolute sovereigns directed its sway. (5.) One of these reigned at Rome, the other at Constantinople. (6.) The first, or western empire, was soon overrun by the Ostrogoths, and became the empire of Charlemagne.

XV.—(1.) The decline of the Roman empire was a natural consequence of despotic authority usurped by government, and slavish

grand chamberlain? (3.) What of a chancellor? (4.) What of a grand treasurer? (5.) What of a quæstor? (6.) What of a privy-treasurer? (7.) What of two commanders? (8.) Who was at the head of the army?

XIII.—(1.) To what were provinces subject? (2.) What taxes were levied?

XIV.—(1.) What is said of Roman government? (2.) What of the people? (3.) What of ambitious leaders? (4.) What took place at length? (5.) Where did the two emperors fix their courts? (6.) What befell the first, or western empire?

XV.—(1.) Of what was the decline of the Roman empire the consequence?

submission to it by the people. (2.) The city of Rome became crowded by an impoverished population, dependent upon the possessors of wealth. (3.) Such a population was ready to follow any ambitious leader who flattered and fed its needy members. (4.) It furnished the tools and assistants of the first Cæsars, in their attempts to overthrow liberty. (5.) The lower classes became soldiers and guards of royalty, until the employment of foreign mercenaries reduced them to military slavery.

XVI.—(1.) A proud and luxurious aristocracy, an ignorant and superstitious class of voters, and the jealousies of rival families, were the first disorders of the Roman state. (2.) These were succeeded by treacherous combinations of magistrates and senators, the quarrels of victorious generals, and seizure of all power by a few ambitious chiefs. (3.) The senate became an instrument of tyranny, standing armies were hired to support government, and the people were looked upon as only a little higher than the slaves, who swarmed everywhere.

XVII.—(1.) The Roman state rose and flourished under free institutions and by the temperance of its people. (2.) It tyrannized over the world, and afterward fell into ruins, by reason of despotic government and extremes of wealth and poverty in the community.

XVIII.—(1.) The name of a Roman empire continued to exist in the East during several centuries after the overthrow of Rome herself. (2.) The government then became a half civilized despotism, with an irresponsible head. (3.) So wicked grew the tyrants, that one, it is said, ordered a plate of human noses to be brought to his

(2.) What is said of the city of Rome? (3.) What was such a population ready to do? (4.) What did it furnish? (5.) What became of the lower classes?

XVI.—(1.) What were the first disorders of the Roman state? (2.) By what were they succeeded? (3.) What was the consequence?

XVII.—(1.) How did the Roman state flourish? (2.) What was its subsequent career?

XVIII.—(1.) What continued to exist? (2.) What did the government then become? (3.) What is related of its tyrants?

table, and another tortured his officers, by suspending them, heads downward, over slow fires.

XIX.—(1.) The show of an imperial system was kept up by eastern emperors till the descendants of Arabian races succeeded in overrunning all the ancient countries of Syria, Phœnicia, Chaldea, Egypt, Ethiopia, Persia and Greece. (2.) From that period to the present, all those countries have been governed by Mohammedan monarchical systems. (3.) Most of the territory successively ruled by Assyrian, Medean, Persian, Macedonian and Roman despotism, is now possessed by semi-barbarous nations and wild tribes.

XIX.—(1.) To what period was the show of empire kept up? (2.) What has since been the government of those countries? (3.) What is said of the ~~seats~~ of ancient despotisms?

EARLY LIMITED MONARCHIES.

CHAPTER I.

THE GOTHIC NATIONS.

I.—(1.) WHILE the communities of Greece and Rome were growing from small settlements of families to be powerful states, thousands of nomad tribes wandered through northern countries of Europe and Asia. (2.) They subsisted in the usual manner of rude people, by the chase, by fishing, or precarious tillage of land.

II.—(1.) These wild tribes increased and multiplied by degrees into great armies of people. (2.) The countries which they inhabited were crowded with their numbers. (3.) It became necessary that new abodes should be found, and many thousands, in families and tribes, began to migrate southwardly.

III.—(1.) From northern Asia multitudes of nomads descended, as emigrants, toward Europe. (2.) They resembled the Tartar tribes that now rove in that region. (3.) These people passed into Europe over chains of mountains and desert plains.

IV.—(1.) Many multitudes wandered in communities, like Arabs, with herds of cattle. (2.) Others emigrated in rude wagons, and

I.—(1.) What is said concerning different communities? (2.) How did these wandering people subsist?

II.—(1.) What was the progress of these tribes? (2.) What is said of their dwelling-places? (2.) What became necessary?

III.—(1.) What emigrations took place? (2.) What did these people resemble? (3.) Where did they go?

IV.—(1.) What is said of some multitudes? (2.) What concerning others?

settled wherever they found good lands for pasture or cultivation. (3.) These wandering nations were courageous in spirit, and accustomed to hardships and dangers.

V.—(1.) The cause of emigration from northern countries was a desire to better their condition. (2.) They expected to find a more temperate climate, abundance of fruits, and room for all their numbers, without one tribe or individual interfering with another. (3.) They journeyed under their headmen, as they had been accustomed to wander, in their nomadic way of life, during ages.

VI.—(1.) The emigrant nations who first approached civilized southern countries, were generally called barbarians. (2.) They were considered to be collections of all Asiatic tribes. (3.) At later periods they were distinguished as Germans and Gauls, and as Ostro-Goths and Visi-Goths. (4.) The last two names signified Goths from the east and Goths from the west. (5.) Still later emigrants became known as Huns, Scandinavians, and Northmen.

VII.—(1.) These various wandering nations moved onward, till they overran all the territories governed by Roman power. (2.) They found it easy to conquer luxurious cities and towns of Greece and Italy. (3.) After the fall of Rome, they established themselves in the countries now known as Spain, France, and Germany.

VIII.—(1.) These barbarian immigrations comprised hundreds of tribes distinguished by different names. (2.) Among them were Franks, Burgundians, and Lombards, who afterward settled in France and Italy. (3.) Others, called Angles and Saxons, passed

(3.) What was the character of these wandering nations?

V.—(1.) What was the cause of emigration? (2.) What did the emigrants expect? (3.) Under whose direction did they proceed?

VI.—(1.) What were the emigrant nations called? (2.) What were they considered to be? (3.) How were they distinguished at later periods? (4.) What did the last two names signify? (5.) How were later barbarians called?

VII.—(1.) What did the wandering nations do? (2.) What did they find easy? (3.) Where did they establish themselves?

VIII.—(1.) What did the immigrations comprise? (2.) What were some of these? (3.) What is said of others?

over to Britain, and the Huns, Pannonians, Allemanni, and Sarmatians, founded different states of Germany.

IX.—(1.) The mode of government most common, among the nations called Ostro-Goths, was that of an elective monarchy. (2.) The chiefs or headmen of various tribes constituted an aristocracy. (3.) When the tribes were united under one leader, for a war, or for an emigration, this aristocracy elected a king.

X.—(1.) An Ostro-Gothic army, composed of numerous tribes, and their headmen, under a common sovereign, formed a federal combination. (2.) When such an army made a permanent settlement, its leading tribe usually gave name to the entire nation.

XI.—(1.) The chief men, or leaders of tribes, became lords or landholders of any country that was conquered and settled by an emigrant army. (2.) They selected a king from the chief family of a leading tribe.

XII.—(1.) When a sovereign desired to name his successor, it could only be with consent of the leaders of tribes. (2.) When he died without indicating a preference, some member of his family was chosen, or, if there were none left, a king was taken from another head family.

XIII.—(1.) After a Gothic nation settled in new possessions, the king appointed headmen of tribes to be officers of government, with the title of dukes and counts. (2.) Dukes were highest military commanders, and counts were the principal civil dignitaries. (3.) A duke was general of a province in which he was placed, and exer-

IX.—(1.) What mode of government had the Gothic tribes? (2.) What constituted an aristocracy? (3.) What did this aristocracy do on certain occasions?

X.—(1.) What did an Ostro-Gothic army form? (2.) What is said of its settlement?

XI.—(1.) Who became lords of a conquered country? (2.) From what class was the king selected?

XII.—(1.) How could a king appoint his successor? (2.) What occurred when he did not appoint?

XIII.—(1.) What took place when a Gothic army settled? (2.) What were dukes and counts? (3.) What power was exercised by the Gothic duke?

cised supreme power, under the orders of his sovereign. (4.) A count was chief judge, with power to appoint and suspend inferior judges, and review all decisions made by them.

XIV.—(1.) Counts named subordinate officers, or lieutenants, to preside in their absence over a town or province, with limited powers. (2.) A count could call out the militia or citizens of his district on occasions of importance.

XV.—(1.) Ostro-Gothic monarchs exercised absolute sovereignty over their subjects, though their proceedings were influenced by national usages. (2.) The whole body of dukes and counts was sometimes called together, to represent their tribes in council. (3.) All inferior officers were appointed by the sovereign, through his dukes and counts. (4.) The king issued orders to the army, and imposed taxes at his pleasure.



CHAPTER II.

NORMANS AND SAXONS.

I.—(1.) INHABITANTS of northern Europe, who emigrated toward civilized countries after the destruction of Roman empire, were known as Scandinavians, or Northmen. (2.) They originally wandered among Gothic hordes, in those great wildernesses that now compose parts of the Russian empire.

II.—(1.) Scandinavian invaders began to be powerful in Europe while the Franks were organizing kingdoms in Gaul and Germany.

(4.) What authority had a count?

XIV.—(1.) What subordinate officers were named? (2.) What could a count do?

XV.—(1.) What authority had Ostro-Gothic kings? (2.) What great council was sometimes called? (3.) How were inferior officers appointed? (4.) What did the king do?

I.—(1.) What were emigrants from northern Europe called? (2.) Where did they originally wander?

II.—(1.) At what period did Scandinavian immigrants become powerful?

(2.) These invaders came in ships, which they had navigated through northern seas. (3.) They ravaged coasts and plundered cities wherever they landed.

III.—(1.) The Normans, as those who came in ships were called, took possession of a large portion of Frankish territory. (2.) Their leader became a duke of the conquered district, and it was afterward called Normandy. (3.) Like other princes of France, the dukes of Normandy acknowledged the kings of France as sovereigns, but governed their own territories in what manner they pleased.

IV.—(1.) Another Scandinavian nation settled near the borders of France, in the German country. (2.) This nation was known under the name of Saxons, and consisted of several combined tribes, each governed by its chief. (3.) From these chiefs, or headmen, the people elected their king, in the manner of other Gothic nations.

V.—(1.) Saxon kings were considered only as first magistrates, whose authority depended upon their personal ability to control other chiefs. (2.) Saxon laws were made in an assembly of the elders, or wise men, of each tribe.

VI.—(1.) The common people of Saxon tribes did not possess the law-making power. (2.) The headmen formed an aristocracy, for purposes of government. (3.) All officials were appointed by the king from this aristocracy.

VII.—(1.) Saxons were divided into three ranks, like other Germanic nations. (2.) The first rank was composed of nobles, who were proprietors of nearly all the lands. (3.) The second class

(2.) How did these invaders come? (3.) What did they do?

III.—(1.) What did the Normans do? (2.) What did their leader become? (3.) What is said concerning dukes of Normandy?

IV.—(1.) Where did another Scandinavian nation settle? (2.) What is said of this nation? (3.) How was a Saxon king chosen?

V.—(1.) How were Saxon kings regarded? (2.) How were Saxon laws made?

VI.—(1.) Who did not possess legislative power? (2.) Who formed an aristocracy? (3.) What is said of officials?

VI.—(1.) How were Saxons divided? (2.) Of whom was the first rank composed? (3.) Of what did the second class of Saxon people consist?

consisted of *freemen*, comprising soldiers, sailors, merchants, and the professions. (4.) The rest of the people were classed as slaves. (5.) The second rank could be admitted among the first in certain cases.

VIII.—(1.) Slaves were deprived of all political or social rights. (2.) They were separated into household servants and bond-slaves, or serfs. (3.) Some orders of population in Russia, at the present day, occupy a similar position to that of the ancient Saxon serfs.

IX.—(1.) There were several courts of justice and degrees of magistracy known among the Saxons. (2.) Judges were always selected from the proprietors of land.

X.—(1.) Saxons migrated from their settlements in Germany, and took possession of the British Islands. (2.) There they mingled with tribes who were known as Britons and Angles, and established a number of small separate kingdoms.



CHAPTER III.

THE FRANKISH OR FRENCH MONARCHY.

I.—(1.) WHEN later barbarian immigrations pressed down toward Italy and Greece, they invaded tribes and communities that were settled in the path of their migration. (2.) Many of these tribes joined their numbers, under the name of *Franks*, or *freemen*, and marched upon the Roman provinces in Gaul.

(4.) How were the remainder classed? (5.) What is said of the second rank?

VIII.—(1.) What was the condition of slaves? (2.) How were they separated? (3.) What persons at the present day resemble ancient Saxon slaves in condition?

IX.—(1.) What is said concerning courts of justice? (2.) What class furnished magistrates?

X.—(1.) What new possessions did Saxons gain? (2.) What did they do in the British Islands?

I.—(1.) What is said of later barbarian invasions? (2.) What did many of these tribes do?

II.—(1.) The Frankish tribes were democratic in their separate organization. (2.) They elected their kings by votes of all the people, given through their headmen. (3.) When they took possession of Gaul, the headmen received grants of land from the monarch, and were made his chief officers and councillors.

III.—(1.) Frankish kings acknowledged the right of their great officers to a voice in all matters of war and government. (2.) The great officers met with their people in the camp, or public assembly, and deliberated on public business.

IV.—(1.) Frankish kings had no power to make laws, and could only be judges in certain cases. (2.) The people, in general assembly, once a year, passed laws to govern the nation and individuals. (3.) In these meetings, the king could cast but a single vote, like a common soldier. (4.) In time of actual war, the king was absolute, as general, but possessed only limited civil authority.

V.—(1.) The emigrating Franks were governed by military discipline, but each individual felt himself equal to another in rank. (2.) After their settlement in Gaul, each tribe retained its peculiar laws and customs. (3.) The privilege of meeting in public assemblies was generally extended to the conquered native inhabitants. (4.) Thus, the founders of the French nation constituted a simple democratic state

VI.—(1.) When leaders, and other officers of Frankish tribes, fixed themselves in Gaul, they drove out or destroyed many Gallic

II.—(1.) What political character had the Frankish tribes? (2.) How did they elect their kings? (3.) What occurred when they took possession of Gaul?

III.—(1.) What did Frankish kings acknowledge? (2.) What did the great officers do?

IV.—(1.) What is said of the kingly power? (2.) How were laws made? (3.) What privilege had the king in those assemblies? (4.) When was the king most powerful?

V.—(1.) How were the emigrating Franks governed? (2.) What took place after their settlement? (3.) What privilege was extended to others? (4.) What is remarked concerning the Franks?

VI.—(1.) What did the Frankish leaders do, after permanent settlement?

chiefs who resisted their arms. (2.) Non-resisting possessors of land were left in occupation, on condition of submitting to the invaders.

VII.—(1.) In this way the soil of Gaul remained parcelled out in large tracts among Frankish and Gallic principal men. (2.) Each of these chiefs supported a number of followers on his domain. (3.) Smaller estates were possessed by inferior persons.

VIII.—(1.) The insecurity of life which arose from constant warfare caused owners of smaller estates to place themselves under protection of larger proprietors. (2.) A chief so selected, as protector, was obliged to keep a large force of soldiers under his orders. (3.) The expense of this force was defrayed by contributions of money and provisions, made by the smaller landlords.

IX.—(1.) While high officials, such as dukes and counts, were generals and chief judges, the larger landholders acted as inferior judges and subordinate commanders. (2.) In time of danger, the dukes summoned all landed proprietors to assemble their soldiers and servants. (3.) In seasons of quiet, large land proprietors exercised the duties of magistrates, each one settling the disputes of his tenants and retainers.

X.—(1.) Large landholders became known as seigneurs, or lords, gentlemen, and esquires. (2.) Seigneurs were highest, under the dukes, counts, and royal family. (3.) Some of them held their lands by grant from the king, and some by favor of the dukes and counts. (4.) Large landholders, or seigneurs, often made small grants of soil to gentlemen and esquires, on certain conditions of service. (5.) The rest of the people cultivated land as tenants or vassals,

(2.) How were non-resistants treated?

VII.—(1.) What is said of the soil of Gaul? (2.) What did each chief do? (3.) Who possessed smaller estates?

VIII.—(1.) What did insecurity of life cause? (2.) What was a protecting chief obliged to do? (3.) How was the expense defrayed?

IX.—(1.) Who were magistrates and judges? (2.) What was done in time of danger? (3.) What is said about seasons of quiet?

X.—(1.) How did larger landholders become known? (2.) Who were the highest? (3.) How did they hold their lands? (4.) What did seigneurs often do? (5.) What is said of the rest of the population?

and were obliged to follow their superiors to war, in consideration of their protection.

XI.—(1.) The first regular organization of government and laws among the Franks, was made by their monarch Charlemagne, or Charles the Great. (2.) This king became very powerful, and extended the Frankish dominions throughout Gaul, Italy and the German territory.

XII.—(1.) Charlemagne established a general assembly, or council, to meet twice in every year. (2.) This council was called a parliament, and comprised, firstly, the principal nobles and landholders of the kingdom; secondly, the highest order of priests, called bishops and abbots; and thirdly, twelve representatives of the people at large, from each district governed by a count. (3.) The three classes were divided into three bodies, or chambers, at their place of meeting. (4.) Large land proprietors constituted a Chamber of Nobles; religious lords were called the Chamber of Bishops; delegates of the people formed a Third Estate, or Chamber of the People.

XIII.—(1.) Charlemagne provided for civil government in his provinces, in addition to the military command exercised by dukes or generals. (2.) He appointed a number of commissioners, or royal judges, whose duty it was to visit every province once in four months, and, at each visit, hold a court of justice.

XIV.—(1.) The commissioners, or royal judges, were commanded to hear the causes of the poor first. (2.) Next, they were to decide in matters concerning the king. (3.) Thirdly, they were to settle questions relating to the clergy. (4.) Fourthly, they were to listen to complaints of the people at large.

XI.—(1.) When were the Franks first regularly organized? (2.) What is said of Charlemagne?

XII.—(1.) What did Charlemagne establish? (2.) What is said of this council? (3.) How were the delegates of these three classes divided? (4.) What did each class constitute?

XIII.—(1.) For what did Charlemagne provide? (2.) What did he appoint?

XIV.—(1.) What was the first duty of royal commissioners? (2.) What the second? (3.) What the third? (4.) What the fourth?

XV.—(1.) The commissioners summoned a meeting once in every year, of all the bishops, abbots, nobles and deputies of every province governed by a count. (2.) At these meetings they examined, as chief judges, into all the affairs of a province, and inquired into the conduct of the count and his subordinate magistrates.

XVI.—(1.) When the general assembly, or parliament, met twice a year, the royal judges made their report to the king and the three chambers, or estates. (2.) The condition of the whole kingdom was thus made known, and public affairs were kept in constant view of the people.

XVII.—(1.) The dukes of Charlemagne's dominions held the largest landed estates, and each duke was a military chief over the province wherein his lands were situated. (2.) When the monarch summoned his dukes to war, they were obliged to call out all the strength of their provinces to perform military duty.

XVIII.—(1.) New territories conquered by the Franks were divided into districts, provinces and townships. (2.) They were generally distributed by the king among his followers, who had done good service. (3.) The original inhabitants were not driven out, but remained in occupation of the soil on certain terms, afterward known as feudal laws.

XIX.—(1.) The democratic character of the Frankish people made them, in a great measure, independent of the king. (2.) They banded in communities of towns and villages, each with its leading men or nobles. (3.) The nobles protected the people in occupation of their lands, and the people, in return, supported the nobles.

XV.—(1.) What did the commissioners summon? (2.) What did they do at the meetings?

XVI.—(1.) When was a report made to government? (2.) What was the consequence of this?

XVII.—(1.) What is said of Charlemagne's dukes? (2.) What was the military duty of dukes?

XVIII.—(1.) How were conquered territories divided? (2.) How were they distributed? (3.) What became of the original inhabitants?

XIX.—(1.) What is said of the democratic character? (2.) How did they combine? (3.) What relations existed between nobles and the people?

XX.—(1.) In districts of country where traffic was profitable, merchants established towns and surrounded them with walls. (2.) Some neighboring chief, either a duke, count, or influential noble, was chosen by the citizens as protector, or lord of the town. (3.) The inhabitants paid an annual tax to him for his protection, and he agreed to defend them from aggressions by the king or other chiefs.

XXI.—(1.) The citizens of a town conducted their own local affairs. (2.) They chose magistrates from their principal men, and met in public assemblies. (3.) Sometimes a bishop or abbot was seigneur of a city, and taxes or tribute was paid to him, on the same conditions as to a seigneur.

XXII.—(1.) The duke of a province was sovereign over all the counts and seigneurs who held lands, or were lords of towns and villages, in his territory. (2.) When he went to war, these seigneurs attended, each bringing men according to his means, beneath his own banner or pennon.

XXIII.—(1.) Under early Frankish kings, dukes often warred among themselves, and seized the land of inferior lords from one another. (2.) Afterward, some dukes became nearly as strong as the king himself, in followers, lands and treasures. (3.) Of these were the Dukes of Normandy, Burgundy, Brittany, and other districts of country, sometimes embracing several provinces in one dukedom.

XXIV.—(1.) Dukes, counts, and other officers, were called by such names, at first, only as officers of the king. (2.) Afterward, the titles were allowed to descend from fathers to sons, as marks

XX.—(1.) What did merchants do? (2.) Who was chosen as their protector? (3.) How did the town people engage with this protector?

XXI.—(1.) How were town affairs conducted? (2.) What did they choose? (3.) What was said of a bishop or abbot?

XXII.—(1.) What was a duke's authority? (2.) Who followed him to war?

XXIII.—(1.) What did dukes often do? (2.) What did some dukes become? (3.) What powerful dukes are mentioned?

XXIV.—(1.) How did the titles *dukes* and *counts* originate? (2.) What did

of family distinction. (3.) Under these high nobles, there grew up an aristocracy of landholding chiefs, who, when united, could compel the king to do whatever they desired.

XXV.—(1.) The Frankish nation, after Charlemagne's time, became classified in three divisions, or conditions, of the people. (2.) The first embraced religious and military nobles, called dukes, counts, seigneurs, bishops and abbots. (3.) The second contained merchants, small landholders, and inferior clergy, or persons following trades and professions. (4.) The lowest division comprised all persons called serfs, or *vilains*. (5.) These last were laborers, bound to the soil, and inferior servants, without rights or privileges.

XXVI.—(1.) Out of these separations of the people, in the empire established by Charlemagne, arose two other modes of political combination. (2.) The first of these became famous as the Feudal System. (3.) The second was afterward known as the League of Free Cities.



CHAPTER IV.

THE VISIGOTH AND MOORISH MONARCHIES

I.—(1.) THAT branch of the barbarian nations called Visigoths conquered the Roman districts of Spain, and established a kingdom. (2.) Their kings were elected by the chiefs, or headmen of tribes. (3.) These chiefs formed an aristocracy, which kept the royal authority in check.

they afterward become? (3.) What grew up under the Frankish dukes and counts?

XXV.—(1.) How did the nation become classified? (2.) Who comprised the first division? (3.) Who composed the second? (4.) What did the third comprehend? (5.) What was the social and political condition of the last division?

XXVI.—(1.) What arose out of these separations of the people? (2.) What was the first of these? (3.) What was the second?

I.—(1.) What is said of the Visigoths? (2.) What of the kings? (3.) What did the chiefs form?

II.—(1.) The Visigoths, after settlement, adopted and imitated the Roman laws and customs. (2.) They collected Roman laws in a code, and prepared commentaries or notes to explain them.

III.—(1.) The Visigoths were oppressors of the native inhabitants. (2.) They seized two-thirds of their property, and claimed sole ownership of the soil. (3.) The Visigothic possessions in Spain were afterward invaded by the Saracens, or Mohammedan Arabs, called Moors.

IV.—(1.) The Moors overran the greater part of Spain, and established a Mohammedan empire. (2.) The Gothic Christians were driven to the mountains, where they formed a small monarchy. (3.) The provinces and cities of Spain, under the Moors, were governed by nobles called Emirs, responsible to a sovereign known as a *Khalif*. (4.) At a later period the Khalifs were replaced by nine independent princes, governing as many provinces.

V.—(1.) The remnant of Goths that survived the Moorish conquest grew up into several nationalities of Spaniards. (2.) They struggled against the Moorish princes during several centuries, and at length expelled them from the country.

VI.—(1.) The Spanish descendants of Goths received many chartered privileges from their monarchs. (2.) The people of chartered towns associated as *vecinas*, or neighbors, under a written charter called a *fuero*. (3.) The Spanish chartered towns, chose their own magistrates, under the name of *alcades*.

VII.—(1.) During the middle ages, Spanish laws and customs were modified by feudal usages. (2.) An aristocracy was estab-

II.—(1.) What did the Visigoths adopt? (2.) What did they collect?

III.—(1.) What is remarked of the Visigoths? (2.) What did they do? (3.) What befell them?

IV.—(1.) What is said of the Moors? (2.) What became of the Goths? (3.) How was Spain governed by the Moors? (4.) What took place at a later period?

V.—(1.) What is said of the Goths? (2.) What did they do?

VI.—(1.) What did the Spanish people receive? (2.) How did they associate? (3.) What privileges had the chartered towns?

VII.—(1.) What occurred during the middle ages? (2.) What was estab-

lished, consisting of two ranks. (3.) The wealthy land-possessors were called *ricos hombres*, or rich men. (4.) The military nobles were known as *hidalgos*. (5.) Another class was composed of town magistrates and other elected officers. (6.) People who worked the soil, or labored in handicrafts, were considered to be inferior, and possessed no voice in local government.

lished? (3.) What were wealthy landowners called? (4.) Who were the *hidalgos*? (5.) What other class was there? (6.) What is said of other persons?

GOVERNMENTS

DURING THE MIDDLE AGES.

CHAPTER I.

THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE OF GERMANY.

I.—(1.) THE Germans, in earliest periods of history, were known by the general name of barbarian tribes. (2.) They belonged to numerous savage families that dwelt or roved in the wildernesses bordering on Europe and Asia. (3.) From one great stock they branched in several directions, under various leaders and national names.

II.—(1.) Each Germanic nation was composed of as many tribes as chose to associate together for war or emigration. (2.) The earliest appearance of Germans in history is under the name of Gauls. (3.) They made settlements on the continent of Europe and the northern islands.

III.—(1.) In later times other Asiatic families pressed southward upon the first emigrants. (2.) Old and new barbarians became mixed, and formed new nationalities and divisions. (3.) They appeared in history as Gauls, Germans, and eastern and western Goths. (4.) From these branched out Franks, Lombards, Saxons,

I.—(1.) How were Germans originally known? (2.) To what did they belong? (3.) What did they do?

II.—(1.) How was a Germanic nation composed? (2.) Under what name did they first appear in Europe? (3.) Where did they settle?

III.—(1.) What took place afterward? (2.) What then occurred? (3.) Under what names did they appear? (4.) What branches are mentioned?

Normans, Angles, and other nations, which have since given their names to European countries. (5.) The Gauls originally gave name to the country now called France, but were displaced in possession and name by the Franks.

IV.—(1.) Government, among German clans, was usually in the hands of a military aristocracy, composed of chiefs or headmen of tribes. (2.) These chose a king, as head of a combination of tribes, and shared authority as his counsellors and governors.

V.—(1.) Two general forms of government were in use among German nations. (2.) One of these is represented in the limited monarchy adopted by the Franks. (3.) The other was a more absolute monarchy, as observed in the Gothic systems.

VI.—(1.) After the subjugation of Rome by Goths, the territory of Germany remained in possession of many rude tribes, under distinct names. (2.) Among them were Huns, Pannonians, Sarmatians, Slaves, Avarians, and Helvetians. (3.) From these tribes descended Hungarians, Russians, Poles, Bohemians, Austrians, and Swiss.

VII.—(1.) The various tribes were conquered by generals of Charlemagne. (2.) Districts in which they dwelt were joined to the Frankish or French empire. (3.) After the death of Charlemagne they revolted, under their chiefs, and elected a monarch of their own. (4.) This revolt was the origin of the German empire.

VIII.—(1.) The German empire was, at first, a combination of independent nations, each with its sovereign. (2.) They united only

(5.) What is said of the Gauls?

IV.—(1.) How were German tribes governed? (2.) What did the chiefs do?

V.—(1.) How many general forms of government are mentioned? (2.) What did one form represent? (3.) What was the other form?

VI.—(1.) What is said of Germany? (2.) Name some of these tribes? (3.) What nations have descended from these tribes?

VII.—(1.) Who conquered the various tribes? (2.) What became of their territories? (3.) What occurred at Charlemagne's death? (4.) Of what was this the origin?

VIII.—(1.) What was the German empire at first? (2.) What was the ob-

for purposes of war, and to extend their dominion. (3.) The German emperors succeeded in obtaining sovereignty over portions of France and Italy. (4.) The German Confederacy protected the authority of Roman Popes, and took the name of Holy Roman Empire.

IX.—(1.) The emperors were chosen by votes of the minor monarchs, in a council called the *National Diet*. (2.) The name of *elector* became a title to designate one of the chiefs, or sovereigns, who was entitled to vote for an emperor.

X.—(1.) The confederation of electoral states continued to be called the Holy Roman Empire of Germany during several centuries. (2.) Its separate princes remained independent of each other, and were sometimes at war on opposite sides. (3.) The principal governments afterward became consolidated under jurisdiction of the Emperor of Austria.

XI.—1. At the death of Charlemagne, most of the nations of France, Italy, Germany, and the English islands, were divided into higher and lower orders of people. (2.) The fental system began at that period, and continued through several centuries known as the dark ages.

ject of their union? (3.) What was the result? (4.) What did the German Confederacy do?

IX.—(1.) How were emperors chosen? (2.) What did the name of *elector* become?

X.—(1.) What is said of the Confederation? (2.) What of its princes? (3.) How were the principal governments consolidated?

XI.—(1.) What divisions took place at the death of Charlemagne? (2.) What system then began?

CHAPTER II.

THE FEUDAL SYSTEM AND CHIVALRY

I.—(1.) WHEN uncivilized nations became masters of Europe, nearly all the laws of Greece and Rome were replaced by regulations founded on barbarian customs. (2.) The conversion of the invading people to Christianity softened their rude manners, but did not teach them the lost knowledge of ancient times.

II.—(1.) In many respects, the administration of political affairs among barbarian nations was based on justice. (2.) The custom of meeting in assemblies, of electing chiefs and kings, and transacting other public business in common, as among the Franks, was founded on principles of liberty and popular independence.

III.—(1.) When conquering tribes established themselves in rich countries, their kings and chiefs became ambitious to retain authority over the people during peace, as they had exercised it in war. (2.) To effect this, the new monarchs appointed their chief followers to govern, under the names of dukes, counts, and margraves, or marquises.

IV.—(1.) Dukes, as before mentioned, were made military commanders over provinces, and were next to the kings in authority. (2.) Sometimes a duke bore the title of viceroy, meaning that he stood in place of the monarch. (3.) Counts were next highest in jurisdiction. (4.) They had authority as magistrates, in peace and were summoned as subordinate leaders, in time of war.

I.—(1.) What is said of Grecian and Roman laws? (2.) What was effected by Christianity?

II.—(1.) What is said of barbarian governments? (2.) What customs are remarked upon?

III.—(1.) What occurred when barbarous tribes settled? (2.) What did the new monarchs do?

IV.—(1.) What is remarked concerning dukes? (2.) What title did a duke sometimes bear? (3.) What were counts? (4.) What was their authority?

V.—(1.) Marquises, or *marchers*, were officers who exercised the authority of dukes and counts on the borders, or *marches*, of the country. (2.) They were representatives of the dukes and the king, in defending the frontiers of a kingdom. (3.) Marquises occupied forts, called castles, generally built by the king and placed in their charge.

VI.—(1.) Sometimes an officer of the king received a grant of land on which to build a castle, with the provision that he should keep off all enemies from that part of the frontier. (2.) He thus became a marquis, or lord of the border. (3.) Sometimes a large landholder erected a castle at his own expense.

VII.—(1.) Wherever a castle was held, it was necessary for its lord to keep in pay a requisite number of soldiers to defend it. (2.) People who tilled the soil, or worked at handicraft, settled around each stronghold, for personal security. (3.) The lord of a castle permitted them to establish a village on his lands and to plant in the soil.

VIII.—(1.) In return for a noble's protection, as well as the use of his land for dwelling and tillage, those who settled obligated themselves to certain conditions. (2.) They promised to devote a part of their time to cultivating the landlord's fields, and waiting on him in other domestic service. (3.) They agreed to follow him in time of war, and to bring their disputes to him for settlement.

IX.—(1.) In course of time, castles were built whenever a proprietor of land could control the means and establish a claim to nobility. (2.) In many cases, they were erected by unprincipled

V.—(1.) What were the *marquises*? (2.) Who did they represent? (3.) What did they occupy?

VI.—(1.) What did an officer sometimes receive? (2.) What did he become? (3.) What did a large landholder sometimes do?

VII.—(1.) What was necessary when a castle was built? (2.) Who settled near it? (3.) What did the lord permit them to do?

VIII.—(1.) How did the people obligate themselves? (2.) What did they promise? (3.) To what did they agree?

IX.—(1.) What took place in course of time? (2.) What occurred in many cases?

adventurers upon rocky eminences, and used as mere dens of robbers.

X.—(1.) Sometimes an unscrupulous soldier raised a band of daring comrades and took possession of a castle, driving out its owner. (2.) Establishing himself with his ruffians, he tyrannized over inhabitants of the neighboring villages, and tillers of the soil.

XI.—(1.) The owner of one castle often made war on the possessor of another, and forced him to yield up his stronghold and village. (2.) The heir of one castle's lord often married the heiress of another castle, and the two properties became united.

XII.—(1.) In this manner, and by gifts of the monarch or dukes, the lower classes of nobles grew to be more powerful. (2.) The dukes and counts, and other holders of large territories, continued to augment their possessions and privileges by similar means.

XIII.—(1.) The members and families of nobility became a great aristocracy of landholders. (2.) They took care of their own advantage, as individuals or a class, without regard to any interests of the community at large. (3.) On occasions, they found themselves powerful enough to combine against the king, and force him to yield to their pleasure.

XIV.—(1.) The landed nobility became the ruling class in a nation, because monarchs depended on them for the defence of royal authority. (2.) During feudal ages, there was generally one or another noble at war with a neighbor, or in rebellion against the monarch, his master. (3.) The king was often forced to call upon friends among the nobles, in order to protect his throne from attacks of another portion of the nobility in open arms against him.

X.—(1.) What was sometimes done? (2.) How did he conduct himself?

XI.—(1.) What did the owner of a castle often do? (2.) What else took place?

XII.—(1.) What was the result of these things? (2.) What is said of large landholders?

XIII.—(1.) What did the nobility become? (2.) How did they act? (3.) What did they find themselves?

XIV.—(1.) What is said of the landed nobility? (2.) What is said of their conflicts? (3.) What was the king often obliged to do?

XV.—(1.) The nobility exercised authority over all inferior people, according to their rank and power. (2.) A second or third class noble could be a tyrant within the limits of his own domain, unless some one equal or superior to himself interfered to oppose him. (3.) This was in accordance with the whole Feudal System.

XVI.—(1.) By this system, the king was placed at the head of the powerful nobility merely as a sign that they belonged to one nation, and as a leader in warfare. (2.) Whatever power he enjoyed proceeded from the possession of great and commanding personal qualities. (3.) When he could control the nobility by his will, he was an absolute monarch. (4.) Accordingly as nobles were combined against him or in his favor, so far was his authority despotic or limited.

XVII.—(1.) Similar restrictions governed the power of nobles. (2.) They all pretended to regard the monarch as owner of their lands, and acknowledged themselves bound to his service, in consideration thereof. (3.) Every heiress of a noble, who became an orphan, was considered to be under guardianship of the monarch. (4.) He claimed the right to take charge of her income and dispose of her in marriage.

XVIII.—(1.) A monarch assumed authority to summon every noble of his kingdom, high or low, to answer for any offence, to take oath of allegiance, perform stipulated service, or pay customary tribute. (2.) A monarch possessed the right to propose laws for the raising of revenue, by tax or otherwise, and to assemble the parliament to have them acted upon.

XIX.—(1.) Superior nobles, such as dukes and other great

XV.—(1.) What authority did nobles wield? (2.) What is said of inferior nobles? (3.) With what was this in accordance?

XVI.—(1.) What was the king's position? (2.) What power could he exercise? (3.) When was he absolute? (4.) How was his authority influenced?

XVII.—(1.) What is said of the power of nobles? (2.) What did they all pretend? (3.) What is said of an heiress? (4.) What did the monarch claim?

XVIII.—(1.) What authority did a monarch assume? (2.) What right did he possess?

XIX.—(1.) What were superior nobles called during feudal ages?

landholders, were called crown-vassals and barons of the kingdom (2.) The king usually selected his counsellors from among these. (3.) Crown-princes, or brothers and sons of the monarch, were the highest among them. (4.) They usually possessed large estates, sometimes entire provinces, which were called appanages of the crown. (5.) Some crown-princes governed principalities or dukedoms, in their right, as vassals of the monarch, and were independent rulers over their own domains.

XX.—(1.) Besides dukes, counts, marquises, and other high nobles, there were others, called viscounts, earls, barons, knights and baronets. (2.) There were church dignitaries, or ecclesiastical lords, who held possessions in lands, castles, and even towns. (3.) These were cardinals and bishops of the Roman church, and heads of convents and other religious houses, styled abbots and priors.

XXI.—(1.) The people of a town, village, or district, could acknowledge a bishop, or other church dignitary, to be their liege lord, and obligate themselves to do service, to him for use of his lands, or for his protection. (2.) The bishop, on his part, was expected to maintain armed men to defend the people. (3.) He was also expected to secure a proper administration of justice, as a magistrate.

XXII.—(1.) Laws ordained by parliament, or otherwise established, were seldom observed as rules by nobles on their own domains. (2.) Each seigneur, according to his degree, his position, or the extent of his lands, claimed to be a sovereign over the classes beneath him. (3.) Powerful barons made their own pleasure and will the only laws of their action toward inferiors.

(2.) What did the king select from these? (3.) Who were the highest nobles? (4.) What did they usually possess? (5.) What is said of some crown-princes?

XX.—(1) What nobles are enumerated by their titles? (2.) What is said of church dignitaries? (3) Who were these dignitaries?

XXI.—(1.) What could the people of a town do? (2.) What was expected of the bishop? (3.) For what else was he looked to?

XXII.—(1.) How were parliamentary laws regarded? (2.) What did each seigneur claim? (3.) What did powerful barons do?

XXIII.—(1.) A monarch claimed the exclusive privilege of making war and peace, coining money, and exercising other sovereign authority. (2.) Powerful nobles often assumed such privileges themselves, and raised forces or issued money from their own territories.

XXIV.—(1.) The nobility defied their superiors, the kings, at every opportunity. (2.) They oppressed their vassals and robbed the industrious classes.

XXV.—(1.) The masses of the people, under feudal usages, were divided into trading and laboring classes. (2.) Merchants were able, in some countries, to combine and build walled cities. (3.) Several of these cities united in a league of commerce and mutual defence. (4.) They thus became formidable to the nobles, and often assisted the king in his struggles against rebellious vassals.

XXVI.—(1.) Agriculturists and mechanics were in general little better than slaves. (2.) Laborers who lived on the estates of nobles, as tenants, or vassals, were considered to belong to the land which they cultivated. (3.) A baron was permitted, by feudal law, to condemn one of these vassals to any punishment whatever. (4.) He exercised supreme authority over the persons of his serfs and their families. (5.) He could sell them, with his lands, and they were forbidden to escape from bondage.

XXVII.—(1.) Under the feudal system, there was no guaranty, by law, for an individual's life or property. (2.) The weak were always

XXIII.—(1.) What did a monarch claim? (2.) What did powerful nobles often assume?

XXIV.—(1.) What was done by the nobility? (2.) What wrong did they commit?

XXV.—(1.) How were the people divided? (2.) What were merchants able to do? (3.) What is said of such cities? (4.) What was the effect of their combination?

XXVI.—(1.) What was the condition of farmers and mechanics? (2.) What is said of tenants or vassals? (3.) What power had a baron over vassals? (4.) What authority did he wield? (5.) What was the relation between lords and serfs?

XXVII.—(1.) What security was there for individuals under feudal law? (2.) What was the rule of authority under custom of feudalism?

subject, more or less, to the attacks of the strong. (3.) As an arbitrary remedy for this condition of insecurity, the institution of Chivalry arose.

XXVIII.—(1.) Chivalry was the title bestowed upon a practice which came into vogue during the feudal ages. (2.) This consisted in the establishment of bodies of men under the name of Orders of Knighthood. (3.) Those who devoted themselves to a life of chivalry were called knights.

XXIX.—(1.) Knights were bound by oath to be virtuous, brave, and patient, under hardships. (2.) They were sworn to protect the innocent, redress injuries, and defend the weak, more particularly defenceless women. (3.) Many knights were accustomed to wander from land to land, and were known as *knights-errants*.

XXX.—(1.) Admission to knighthood was esteemed to be a great honor. (2.) There were religious orders of knights, bound very strictly by their vows. (3.) The institution of knighthood was of great use in softening the ferocity of war, and preserving respect for the female sex. (4.) It did not effect much for the oppressed people, but was usually manifested in romantic devotion to honor between noble or "high-born" individuals. (5.) It became corrupted afterward to a mere distinction of rank.

XXXI.—(1.) Monarchs, in feudal times, discovered their dignity to be decreasing, as the higher class became stronger. (2.) They endeavored to check the power of nobles by encouraging the third estate, or class of the people. (3.) They granted merchants and other citizens the privilege to choose their own magistrates in cities which they occupied. (4.) They established laws, ordaining that

(3.) What arbitrary remedy arose from this state of things?

XXVIII.—(1.) What is said of chivalry? (2.) Of what did this practice consist? (3.) What were members of such bodies called?

XXIX.—(1.) What is said of knights? (2.) To what were they sworn? (3.) Who were the *knights-errant*?

XXX.—(1.) How was knighthood regarded? (2.) What is said of religious knights? (3.) What is said of knighthood? (4.) What did it not effect? (5.) What was the end of knighthood?

XXXI.—(1.) What did monarchs discover? (2.) What did they endeavor to do? (3.) How did they proceed to do this? (4.) What laws did they sanc-

serfs who might escape from the estates of their lords, and live in one of the free cities for a year, should become freemen, and be no longer liable to service. (5.) Courts of law on estates were also abolished, by degrees, and king's or parliament's decrees were declared laws of the land.

XXXII.—(1.) The most serious check given to the feudal system was by the establishment of armies under control of the sovereign. (2.) With soldiers to execute their authority, the monarchs were able to punish their rebellious barons. (3.) The money necessary to support armies was contributed by merchants and working classes, in taxes paid to the royal officers. (4.) Armies were recruited from the people at large, and officered by the king. (5.) The industry and commercial wealth of the people were thus made to balance the landed property of the nobility.

XXXIII.—(1.) The increase of wealth and general prosperity of communities, protected in trade and labor, enabled them to assist the monarchs who encouraged them. (2.) The union of citizens in free towns, and the foundation of commercial or industrial leagues, enabled the middle classes to exert their first influence on government.

tion? (5.) What other changes were effected?

XXXII.—(1.) What was the most serious check given to feudal customs? (2.) What were monarchs able to do with such armies? (3.) Who furnished means to support the king's soldiers? (4.) How were the armies formed? (5.) What balance of interests was thus brought about?

XXXIII.—(1.) What was the consequence of commercial prosperity (2.) What did combinations enable citizens to do?

CHAPTER III.

ORIGIN OF SLAVERY.

I.—(1.) THE custom of enslaving individuals originated in two motives. (2.) The first was a merciful desire to save life; the second, to obtain victims for sacrificial purposes. (3.) Love of gain afterward modified the practice, and rendered it common among ancient nations.

II.—(1.) The earliest conflicts between savage tribes were cruel and sanguinary. (2.) When numbers constituted the main strength of a war party, it was the object of combatants to kill as many foes as they could. (3.) In this way, a whole tribe was often exterminated by enemies.

III.—(1.) A community that depended on the products of hunting, for subsistence, could not support captives in a condition of servitude. (2.) They made prisoners in battle only for the purpose of inflicting tortures upon them, or devoting them as sacrifices to the gods of their worship.

IV.—(1.) Some ferocious or needy tribes were cannibals, and preserved their prisoners for food. (2.) Others permitted a captive to join their ranks, when some family of their number desired to adopt the stranger, with his own consent, as a member.

V.—(1.) When mankind became numerous in nations, the practice of killing enemies after a battle, was generally abandoned, except in cases of revenge or punishment. (2.) Prisoners were

I.—(1.) How did slavery originate? (2.) What were these motives? (3.) How was the practice modified?

II.—(1.) What is said of savage war? (2.) What was an object with combatants? (3.) What was often the consequence?

III.—(1.) What is said concerning a community of hunters? (2.) Why did they make prisoners?

IV.—(1.) What is remarked of some tribes? (2.) What of others?

V.—(1.) When was the practice of killing enemies abandoned? (2.) What

spared and held for ransom by their captors. (3.) By ransom was meant the privilege of redeeming a captive for a certain price in weapons, cattle, or other valuables, paid by his countrymen or kindred.

VI.—(1.) The equivalent demanded for liberating a captive was more or less, according to the person's rank or importance among his countrymen. (2.) This equivalent was generally required to be paid within a stated time.

VII.—(1.) If a prisoner's tribe or family did not pay ransom, the captive was transferred for the price to any other person who required service done, either among the captors or strangers. (2.) Unransomed captives became subject to the pleasure of purchasers, and slavery was thus established among early nations. (3.) The practice extended in proportion as their hunting life was exchanged for agricultural or pastoral pursuits, because the labor of servants grew valuable in the same degree.

VIII.—(1.) When communities were formed, dwellings built, and fields cultivated, settlers began to exchange the products of agriculture for other commodities possessed by wandering tribes. (2.) They sold corn, wine, oil, weapons and ornaments, and received in return the skins of beasts, ivory and ornaments. (3.) When wandering traders saw that servants were in demand, they bought prisoners taken in battle, and bartered them for whatever goods the settlers had to sell.

IX.—(1.) Traffic in slaves thus became a regular branch of commerce. (2.) Some of the wandering Arabian tribes devoted themselves entirely to the business of buying and selling men, women and children. (3.) The Midianite merchants who purchased Joseph,

other course was adopted? (3.) What was understood by ransom?

VI.—(1.) What was the amount required for ransom? (2.) When was it paid?

VII.—(1.) What was done when ransom was not paid? (2.) What was the result of this? (3.) How did the practice extend?

VIII.—(1.) How did traffic or commerce begin to grow? (2.) What exchanges were made? (3.) What is said of servants?

IX.—(1.) What did traffic in slaves become? (2.) What is said of some Arabian tribes? (3.) What Scripture incident of slavery is mentioned?

as related in Scripture, belonged to one of these roving communities. (4.) Slave-making and slave-trading were considered proper to commercial intercourse between both barbarous and civilized nations.

X.—(1.) The hardships and sufferings of slavery in old times were greater or less according to the disposition of masters, or the regulations of society and government concerning slave-holding. (2.) Among Greeks, Romans, Phœnicians and other nations, slaves were deprived of all rights and privileges, and made entirely subject to those who owned them. (3.) Among Hebrews, the condition of slaves was improved by law, and they were restored to liberty at certain festival seasons.

XI.—(1.) During the first wars of the Roman commonwealth, it was usual to make captive all the inhabitants of a captured city, and sell them like cattle, at public auction. (2.) In after years, when Roman armies conquered whole nations, the prisoners taken in battle were usually enslaved, and the rest allowed to escape. (3.) Sometimes thousands were reserved to fight one another, as gladiators, in the Roman theatres. (4.) Gladiators were generally taken from among Thracians, Dacians and other rude tribes. (5.) They were trained in schools, to fight with different weapons, for public amusement on holidays.

XII.—(1.) Military conquerors, in early times, were accustomed to reduce entire nations to slavery. (2.) Kings of Syria, Persia and Egypt carried the Hebrew nation into foreign captivity on several occasions. (3.) Titus, who destroyed Jerusalem with a Roman army, made slaves of one hundred thousand of the inhabitants. (4.) In the wars of Julius Cæsar, a million captives were taken from their homes and sold into slavery.

(4.) How were slave-making and slave-dealing regarded?

X.—(1.) What is remarked of ancient slavery? (2.) What nations oppressed slaves most? (3.) What nation had laws to improve their condition?

XI.—(1.) What was the custom of early Romans? (2.) What was their practice afterward? (3.) What is said of gladiators? (4.) From what nations were gladiators usually taken? (5.) How were they trained?

XII.—(1.) What were military conquerors accustomed to do? (2.) What did early kings do? (3.) What was done by Titus? (4.) What is said of Cæsar's wars?

XIII.—(1.) During the feudal ages, captives taken in war were usually permitted to redeem themselves by paying ransom. (2.) Captains and soldiers who made prisoners in battle were allowed to claim them as prizes, to be redeemed for stipulated sums. (3.) Kings, nobles, knights, and other captives taken, were held at a price according to personal rank or wealth.

XIV.—(1.) During modern centuries, barbarous nations, dwelling on the coast of Africa, engaged in the business of making prisoners for the purpose of selling them into slavery. (2.) They built cities on the Mediterranean, and sailed out in ships, under the name of Tunisians, Tripolitans and Algerines, or Barbary pirates. (3.) They were Mohammedans, and captured merchant ships, or made descents on settlements, for the purpose of enslaving Christian crews and inhabitants. (4.) Their prisoners, when not ransomed by friends, were sold to perpetual slavery. (5.) This piratical slave trade continued to be common during several centuries, and has been but lately abandoned by Barbary nations.

XV.—(1.) Savage tribes and individual natives of Africa were enslaved by ancient nations as far back as human record extends. (2.) Egyptian and Ethiopian ruling classes made slaves of inferior tribes, whether white or black. (3.) Black slaves were usually devoted to household service.

XVI.—(1.) When Spanish conquerors gained possession of Mexico, Peru, and other American countries, they forced the aboriginal inhabitants to work mines, build houses, make roads, and perform all hard labor and menial service. (2.) They treated these native in-

XIII.—(1.) How were captives treated during feudal ages? (2.) How were they claimed? (3.) What is said of their ransoms?

XIV.—(1.) What has taken place during modern centuries? (2.) What did the Barbary pirates do? (3.) What purpose had they? (4.) What became of such prisoners? (5.) What is remarked about this trade?

XV.—(1.) What is said of African slaves? (2.) What was the custom among Egyptians and Ethiopians? (3.) To what service were black slaves devoted?

XVI.—(1.) What is said of Spanish conquerors? (2.) How did they treat the natives?

habitants with such great cruelty, that sympathy became enlisted in their behalf.

XVII.—(1.) It was feared that the Indians could not be civilized or taught Christianity, unless they received better treatment from the Spaniards. (2.) The government of Spain encouraged its subjects to transport black slaves from Africa to America, in order to better the condition of native Indians. (3.) It was argued that both blacks and Indians would receive benefit, the first in being relieved from slavery, and the second by receiving instruction in the Christian religion from their Spanish masters.

XVIII.—(1.) The African slave trade of modern times was thus established by law, and continued to flourish for a long while. (2.) Thousands of vessels were sent to the borders of Africa, to obtain cargoes of slaves. (3.) Black tribes of that country made war upon each other, for the sole purpose of taking prisoners, to sell to white traders. (4.) The greater number of slaves made so, were brought to America, and sold to the settlers.

XIX.—(1.)—During the present century, laws have been passed to abolish the traffic in slaves, among civilized nations. (2.) Black slavery has been abolished in all Republics of the American continent. (3.) In the empire of Brazil, and some Spanish islands, blacks and their descendants are kept as slaves to perform agricultural and other labors. (4.) In the United States, slavery has been abolished, and negroes are admitted to citizenship.

XX.—(1.) In African and Asiatic countries, at the present time, many old customs of slaveholding and slave traffic are in

XVII.—(1.) What was feared? (2.) What did the Government of Spain do? (3.) What was an argument for the enslaving of Africans?

XVIII.—(1.) What is said of the African slave trade? (2.) What was the consequence? (3.) What did black tribes do? (4.) What became of the purchased slaves?

XIX.—(1.) What changes have taken place during the present century? (2.) Where are blacks held as slaves? (3.) What is said of Brazil? (4.) Of the United States?

XX.—(1.) In what other countries do slavery and the slave trade exist?

force. (2.) White and black slaves are still bought and sold in market places of Turkey, Persia and Africa.

XXI.—(1.) During the feudal ages, slavery in Europe was known as serfdom, which was the condition of the poorer classes. (2.) These people were regarded as belonging to the lands they cultivated, in the same way as cattle or other stock belong to farms. (3.) They were transferred from master to master, as the ownership of soil passed from lord to lord. (4.) They were called serfs, vassals, and thralls, or *villeins*, in different countries.

XXII.—(1.) The practice of holding poorer classes of laboring people in this condition exists at the present day in several countries of Europe. (2.) Until recently, serfs formed the agricultural and laboring population of the Russian empire. (3.) Some estates of Russian lords contained thousands of serfs. (4.) The emperor's serfs were counted by millions. (5.) The emperor of Russia liberated these multitudes from serfdom, allowing them to become free owners of small farms.

XXIII.—(1.) In Mexico, and other South American states, a form of slavery subsists called *peonaje*. (2.) It is a species of serfdom to which persons are reduced by law, when unable to satisfy the demands of creditors. (3.) Condemned debtors are forced to labor, as *peons*, for their creditor's benefit. (4.) They must satisfy his claims for the original debt, and for the expense of their subsistence while laboring. (5.) Their families and children are also held, to satisfy claims for expense in their support.

(2.) What is said of white and black slaves ?

XXI.—(1.) What is said of serfdom ? (2.) How were feudal slaves regarded ? (3.) How were they transferred ? (4.) Under what names were they known ?

XXII.—(1.) What is said of serfdom in modern days ? (2.) What of serfs in Russia ? (3.) What did some large estates contain ? (4.) What is said of the Emperor's serfs ? (5.) What was done in Russia ?

XXIII.—What is said of *peonaje* ? (2.) What is this form of slavery ? (3.) What are Mexican debtors obliged to do ? (4.) What must they satisfy ? (5.) What is said concerning their families ?

MODERN MONARCHIES.

CHAPTER I.

PERSIAN AND TURKISH DESPOTISMS.

I.—(1.) THE ancient Persian despotism is now represented by an absolute monarch, called a Shah. (2.) He is assisted by a lieutenant, or grand vizier, and a chief treasurer, with subordinate governors and other officials.

II.—(1.) The grand vizier is general of the Persian army and minister of foreign affairs. (2.) The chief treasurer administers internal affairs of the kingdom, collecting revenue and selecting civil officers. (3.) Both ministers are appointed by the shah, and may be taken from the lowest class of people. (4.) They are slaves to the will of their master, and tyrants over all others.

III.—(1.) Under the chief ministers are the *sardars*, or governors of provinces. (2.) These are usually members of the shah's family, or high nobles. (3.) Each appoints a lieutenant, or *hakim*, and other inferior officers.

IV.—(1.) There are two kinds of tribunals known in the Persian

I.—(1.) How is ancient Persian despotism now represented? (2.) How is the shah assisted?

II.—(1.) What is the grand vizier? (2.) What does the chief treasurer do? (3.) What is said of these ministers? (4.) What is their position?

III.—(1.) What officers are under the ministers? (2.) What are the *sardars*? (3.) What does each appoint?

IV.—1) What is said of Persian tribunals?

judiciary. (2.) One of these decides all questions, according to the Koran, or Mohammedan scriptures. (3.) In the other, judgments are governed by the ancient Persian laws and traditional customs (4.) The population of Persia is made up of various races, comprising numerous wandering tribes, who pay annual tribute.

V.—(1.) The people of Persia are divided into military tribes and dwellers in cities. (2.) The former are under chiefs, whose sons are often kept in the capital as hostages for the fidelity of their fathers. (3.) These tribes mainly continue to dwell in tents, in the manner of ancient Persian clans. (4.) The inhabitants of towns are more or less in a servile condition, according to their subordination under the royal princes.

VI.—(1.) THE ancient patriarchal communities of Arabians were combined, as a powerful nation, under Mahomet and his successors. (2.) Mahomet founded a monarchy called the Caliphate, guided by the precepts of the Koran, or religious revelation, which he communicated.

VII.—(1.) The monarchs, called Caliphs, who succeeded Mahomet, ruled as hereditary despots, restrained only by regulations of the Koran. (2.) They conquered Persia, Syria, and several other countries, and their armies became famous, under the name of Saracens. (3.) At the time when Charlemagne reigned over France, the Saracens were very powerful, under a caliph named Haroun Alraschid.

VIII.—(1.) Saracen armies carried the religion of Mahomet wheresoever they conquered. (2.) They invaded Spain, under the name of Moors, and held possession of a great portion of that coun-

(2.) How are decisions made by one? (3.) How by the other? (4.) What is the character of the Persian population?

V.—(1.) How are the Persian people divided? (2.) What is said of the former? (3.) What is their mode of life? (4.) What is said of the inhabitants of towns?

VI.—(1.) What is said of Arabian communities? (2.) What did Mahomet found?

VII.—(1.) What power had the caliphs? (2.) What is said of their conquests? (3.) At what period were Saracens very powerful?

VIII.—(1.) What did Saracen armies do? (2.) What country did they in-

try till near the sixteenth century. (3.) They also subjugated the people of India and other ancient nations.

IX.—(1.) Under the system of caliphs, Saracens were ruled despotically by one sovereign and the Mohammedan law. (2.) Afterward, generals of armies and governors of conquered provinces set up as independent rulers. (3.) Mohammedan monarchies were thus organized in Egypt, in Spain, and on the coast of Africa.

X.—(1) When the Saracen empire became divided, it was invaded by several barbarous tribes called Turkomans, or Turks, from the deserts of northern Asia. (2.) The Turks were under leadership of a chief named Othman. (3.) This chief united the tribes in a nation, adopted the Mohammedan religion, and took the name of Sultan. (4.) After his death, the nation, composed of Arabians, Saracens and Turkomans, came to be known as Ottomans, or Turks. (5.) They extended their power on every side, and took possession of Constantinople, overthrowing the Roman empire of the East.

XI.—(1) The Turkish government is administered now, as formerly, under the guidance of the religious code given by Mahomet in his Koran. (2.) It extends over countries once occupied by Carthaginians, Egyptians, Ethiopians, Phœnicians, Hebrews, Arabians, and Syrians.

XII.—(1.) The Sultan of Turkey possesses unlimited authority over the persons and property of his subjects. (2.) He is regarded as head of the national religion, and his government is known as the Sublime Porte. (3.) He is assisted in the administration of public affairs by the chief Mufti, or high-priest, and the Grand Vizier, or lieutenant of the empire, with a council of ministers.

vade? (3.) What nations did they subjugate?

IX.—(1.) How were Saracens ruled? (2.) What afterward took place? (3.) What were organized?

X.—(1.) By what tribes were the Saracens overrun? (2.) Who was leader of the Turks? (3.) What did this chief do? (4.) What occurred after his death? (5.) Where was Turkish dominion extended?

XI.—(1.) How is the Turkish government administered? (2.) Over what countries does it extend?

XII.—(1.) What authority has the sultan? (2.) How is he regarded? (3.) By what officers is he assisted?

XIII.—(1.) The chief mufti is styled Sheik-ul-Islam, or Priest of Mohammedanism. (2.) He is head of the supreme court of the empire, and chief of magistrates. (3.) The judicial officers, or magistrates, are persons learned in laws of the Koran, which direct both religious and social matters. (4.) These magistrates are called mollahs, cadis, imaums and ulemas.

XIV.—(1.) The grand vizier is chief of administrative affairs, whether foreign or domestic. (2.) Under him are his deputies and ministers of foreign affairs, of trade, of police, of agriculture, of religious institutions, of the home department, of the revenue, and of public works. (3.) Each of these ministers is appointed by the sultan, and responsible with his life for faithfulness. (4.) Other subordinates of the grand vizier take charge of special matters of administration.

XV.—(1.) A chief of military affairs, acting under the sultan, through the grand vizier, is called the Seraskier, or minister of war. (2.) He has authority over armies and their officers, and is responsible for their conduct. (3.) A minister of marine, called the Capudan-Pacha, or high admiral, superintends the naval forces.

XVI.—(1.) All ministers of departments unite with the vizier and Sheik-ul-Islam to form the sultan's council. (2.) This council is called the Divan, or ministry of state, but its members are controlled by the sultan, as they, in turn, control their subordinates.

XVII.—(1.) Some large provinces of Turkey are under government of officers appointed directly by the sultan. (2.) Others preserve their own laws and chiefs, by paying an annual tribute to

XIII.—(1.) What is the chief mufti styled? (2.) What is his position? (3.) Who are judicial officers? (4.) What are they called?

XIV.—(1.) What is the grand vizier? (2.) What officers are under him? (3.) What is said of these ministers? (4.) What do other subordinates do?

XV.—(1.) What is the seraskier? (2.) What is his authority? (3.) What is the Capudan-Pacha?

XVI.—(1.) How is the sultan's council composed? (2.) What is said of this council?

XVII.—(1.) How are large Turkish provinces governed? (2.) What do

the Sublime Porte. (3.) Others are possessed by wild tribes, under military chiefs, who assist the Turkish government in time of war. (4.) Others are inhabited by pastoral communities, with patriarchal forms of authority.

CHAPTER II.

CHINESE PATRIARCHAL DESPOTISM.

I.—(1.) THE Chinese nation comprises an immense collection of families and tribes blended together as a people. (2.) The two national classes are the original Chinese inhabitants, and their later conquerors, the Tartars. (3.) The sovereigns proceed, by hereditary succession, from the chief Tartar family.

II.—(1.) The patriarchal system of government, as practised in wandering savage tribes, expanded, in China, with the growth of population. (2.) Authority is measured throughout all the empire by regular steps, descending from the sovereign downward.

III.—(1.) There is no hereditary aristocracy in China, except the family of the sovereign. (2.) Whatever officers are appointed from time to time, to administer the laws, constitute an aristocracy while they hold their offices. (3.) These officers are taken, according to personal merit, from the people at large.

IV.—(1.) The most respectable people in China are those who have studied and become educated in all matters known among them. (2.) Accordingly as a youth or man gives evidence of

others preserve? (3.) How are other provinces possessed? (4.) How are others inhabited?

I.—(1.) What does the Chinese nation comprise? (2.) What are the national classes? (3.) What family furnishes the sovereigns?

II.—(1.) What is said of the patriarchal system? (2.) How is authority arranged?

III.—(1.) What is said regarding aristocracy? (2.) Who constitute a temporary aristocracy? (3.) Whence are these officers taken?

IV.—(1.) Who are the most respectable Chinese? (2.) How is an individual regarded in China?

talent and learning, he is looked upon as worthy of advancement and consideration.

V.—(1.) The lowest class of Chinese population are the slaves, who have no rights or privileges. (2.) Slaves are persons who have been condemned to servitude during life, for offences, and captives or rebels, bought and sold. (3.) The poorest and uneducated people of the empire, who pay their taxes by public service, are in the condition of slaves.

VI.—(1.) The domestic servants of Chinese families are generally slaves. (2.) Masters are permitted to have absolute power over them.

VII.—(1.) The Chinese nation is divided socially into four ranks or orders. (2.) In the first place is the learned, or literary class ; next, the cultivators, or agricultural population ; thirdly, the artificers, or manufacturing class ; and fourthly, the merchants.

VIII.—(1.) The only marked superiority is that held by the learned order, from whose members officers of government and magistrates are usually appointed. (2.) There is an exclusive class of courtiers, who claim hereditary distinction, and are called “the ancient tribe.” (3.) They have no authority except in matters of ceremonial about the royal palaces.

IX.—(1.) All appointments to office in China emanate from the supreme government. (2.) Office-holders comprise governors, magistrates, and all other officials. (3.) They are selected on account of superior learning or talent, without regard to birth or property.

X.—(1.) The supreme head of the Chinese state is the emperor,

V.—(1.) Who constitute the lowest class of Chinese ? (2.) What are the slaves ? (3.) What is said of the poorest people ?

VI.—(1.) What are Chinese servants ? (2.) What power have masters ?

VII.—(1.) How is the Chinese nation socially divided ? (2.) What are these ranks ?

VIII.—(1.) Which is the superior order ? (2.) What exclusive class is mentioned ? (3.) What authority have they ?

IX.—(1.) Whence do all appointments emanate ? (2.) What do office-holders comprise ? (3.) On what considerations are they selected ?

X.—(1.) Who is supreme head or patriarch of the Chinese state ?

or patriarchal despot. (2.) He is worshipped with divine honors, and considered to be present at the same time in every part of his dominions. (3.) The number of his subjects is estimated to be more than three hundred millions of souls.

XI.—(1.) The emperor is supposed to worship heaven, and the people pay worship to the emperor, as high-priest of their nation. (2.) No person whatever can pass the gate of a royal palace on horseback, or in a vehicle. (3.) Even the vacant throne, or a screen before it, is regarded as an object of worship. (4.) The particular walks used by the sovereign, in his palace grounds, must not be trodden over by any other foot.

XII.—(1.) The emperor possesses power to name his successor in government. (2.) His seal on all documents makes them sacred, and his dispatches are received by the most distant governors with incense and prostration of the body.

XIII.—(1.) All proclamations, orders, and laws, after being issued by the emperor, are published in an official paper, called the "Pekin Gazette." (2.) The sovereign's letters, and all reports from subordinate officials, appear in this gazette.

XIV.—(1.) As high-priest of the nation, the emperor and those appointed by him for the purpose, perform all religious rites of prayer and sacrifice. (2.) This is a distinguishing feature of the patriarchal mode of government from earliest times. (3.) All religious temples and priests in China are supported by the inhabitants of districts to which they belong.

(2.) What is his station? (3.) What is the number of his subjects?

XI.—(1.) What is said of the emperor's sacred character? (2.) What peculiar respect is paid to him? (3.) What other marks of veneration are mentioned? (4.) What is said of his garden walks?

XII.—(1.) How is the succession of emperors regulated? (2.) What is said of the emperor's seal and writings?

XIII.—(1.) How are laws made known in China? (2.) What other documents appear in this gazette?

XIV.—(1.) Who perform religious ceremonies in China? (2.) What is remarked concerning this practice? (3.) How are temples and priests sustained in China?

XV.—(1.) The emperor appoints, as assistants, a ministry, called the Interior Council Chamber. (2.) His chief counsellors are four in number—two Tartars and two Chinese. (3.) The Tartars are superior, because the emperor himself belongs to a Tartar family or dynasty.

XVI.—(1.) Below the ministers are a number of assessors, or treasurers of the empire, who constitute with them a council of state. (2.) Principal ministers are selected by the emperor, from a great national institution of learning, called the Imperial College of the *Han-lin*.

XVII.—(1.) The emperor has a secret council, formed of special ministers, selected on important occasions. (2.) From this body he appoints commissioners and envoys, to settle difficulties in the empire, or with other nations.

XVIII.—(1.) Under the ministers are boards, or departments, having care of various details of public business. (2.) These boards are known as the Loo-poo, or Six Boards.

XIX.—(1.) The Loo-poo comprise, first, a Board of Appointments, which oversees the conduct of all civil offices; secondly, a Board of Revenue, regulating all money matters; third, a Board of Rites and Ceremonies; fourth, a Military Board; fifth, a Supreme Court of Police matters; sixth, a Board of Public Works.

XX.—(1.) Another department of government is called the office for foreign affairs. (2.) The heads of this department are always Tartars. (3.) It takes charge of treaties and government business with other nations.

XV.—(1.) Who are assistants of the emperor in government? (2.) What is said of his chief counsellors? (3.) Who are superior?

XVI.—(1.) What subordinates are mentioned? (2.) Whence are principal ministers taken?

XVII.—(1.) What other assistants has the emperor? (2.) What does he appoint from the secret council?

XVIII.—(1.) What bodies are under the ministers? (2.) What are these boards called?

XIX.—(1.) What are the different boards comprised in the Loo-poo?

XX.—(1.) What is another department called? (2.) What are the heads of this department? (3.) Of what has this department charge?

XXI.—(1.) There is a department or office called the Board of Censors or Examiners. (2.) About fifty principal officers compose this board. (3.) These censors are sent to different parts of the empire, to examine into the way public business is conducted, inspect the people, and make reports to the emperor concerning all they ascertain. (4.) They are privileged to present any advice or remonstrance to the emperor, without danger of losing their lives.

XXII.—(1.) Chinese provinces are under charge of special rulers, appointed by the imperial government. (2.) The head officer of a single province is called a governor. (3.) That of two or more provinces is known as a general-governor, or viceroy.

XXIII.—(1.) In each provincial government, there is a chief judge, who has special charge of criminal matters. (2.) There is also a treasurer, who examines into civil suits, and takes charge of royal revenues in his province.

XXIV.—(1.) Separate cities and districts of every province are under supervision of respective magistrates, who rank according to the places they govern. (2.) The total number of civil magistrates in China is estimated to be fourteen thousand.

XXV.—(1.) There is an official list called the Red Book, printed quarterly, by authority. (2.) It contains the name, birthplace, and particulars relating to every office-holder in the empire. (3.) All changes made in office are regulated by this list.

XXVI.—(1.) No person is allowed to act as magistrate in the province where he was born or belongs. (2.) Every public officer

XXI.—(1.) What other department is mentioned? (2.) How many officers compose it? (3.) What is the business of these censors? (4.) What privilege have they?

XXII.—(1.) What are provinces under? (2.) What is a chief provincial officer called? (3.) What title has a ruler of two or more provinces?

XXIII.—(1.) What other magistrate is placed in each province? (2.) What imperial officer is there stationed?

XXIV.—(1.) How are separate cities and districts governed? (2.) How many civil magistrates are there in China?

XXV.—(1.) What is said of an official list? (2.) What does the Red Book contain? (3.) What are regulated by this list?

XXVI.—(1.) What restriction regulates magistrates? (2.) What changes

is changed periodically, so as to prevent his permanent connection with any inhabitants of the district. (3.) A son, brother, or other near relation, is not allowed to hold office under a corresponding connection.

XXVII.—(1.) Once in three years, the viceroy or governor of every province makes a special report to the Board of Appointments at Peking. (2.) In this report he mentions every officer under his jurisdiction by name, with remarks on character and conduct, as furnished by the immediate superior of each man.

XXVIII.—(1.) Accordingly as an official is mentioned favorably or otherwise, in the governor's report, he may be expected to rise or be degraded so many degrees. (2.) Every magistrate is obliged to state publicly how many steps he has been raised or degraded while holding office.

XXIX.—(1.) Chinese officials are provided with a regular code of laws for their guidance. (2.) This code is divided into six classifications, corresponding to the six boards, or central departments of government, called Loo-poo.

XXX.—(1.) The first classification relates to the administration of civil offices. (2.) It is comprised in two books, one treating of the system of government, another of the conduct of officers.

XXXI.—(1.) The second division of Chinese laws relates to statistics and money matters, and contains seven books. (2.) The first discourses of the enrollment of the people; the second, of lands and tenements; the third, of marriage statistics; the fourth, of

are regularly made? (3.) What persons are not allowed to hold office under each other?

XXVII.—(1.) What is done once in three years? (2.) What does the governor mention in his report?

XXVIII.—(1.) What is the result of mentioning an official in his superior's report? (2.) What is every magistrate obliged to state?

XXIX.—(1.) With what are Chinese officials provided? (2.) How is this code classified?

XXX.—(1.) To what does the first classification relate? (2.) What is said of its books?

XXXI.—(1.) To what does the second division relate? (2.) Of what do its books treat?

public property; the fifth, of duties and customs; the sixth, of private property; the seventh, of sales and markets.

XXXII.—(1.) The third division of the code is in two books. (2.) The first regards sacred rites; the second concerns miscellaneous observances.

XXXIII.—(1.) The fourth classification of laws relates to military matters, in five books. (2.) First, the protection of the emperor's palace; second, army regulations; third, protection of the frontiers; fourth, horses and cattle of the army; fifth, public posts and expresses.

XXXIV.—(1.) The fifth division of the code occupies eleven books, and is devoted to criminal laws. (2.) It specifies all offences, as treason, robbery, theft, murder, homicide, sacrilege, quarrelling, incendiarism, and other breaches of the law.

XXXV.—(1.) The sixth and last classification treats of public works, under supervision of the board at Peking. (2.) Its two books regulate all matters concerning public buildings, and public roads.

XXXVI.—(1.) Patriarchal, or parental, authority is recognized through all ranks of the people. (2.) Fathers have, to some degree, the power of life and death over their children. (3.) If they kill them designedly, they are punished by only a year's imprisonment. (4.) If they kill them after having received a blow from their hands, the law considers it justifiable.

XXXVII.—(1.) Chinese modes of punishment for capital crimes

XXXII.—(1.) How many books has the third division? (2.) Of what do they treat?

XXXIII.—(1.) To what does the fourth classification relate? (2.) What are its five subjects?

XXXIV.—(1.) What is said of the fifth division? (2.) What does it specify?

XXXV.—(1.) Of what does the sixth classification treat? (2.) What do its books regulate?

XXXVI.—(1.) What authority is universally recognized? (2.) What power have fathers? (3.) What is the penalty for killing children? (4.) What is said of killing children as punishment for abusing parents?

XXXVII.—(1.) What is said of capital punishments in the Chinese empire?

are very severe. (2.) Beating with the bamboo is the most common penalty for all offences not worthy of death. (3.) The penalty of striking, or even cursing, a parent, is death.

XXXVIII.—(1.) The vital principle of Chinese government is submission to parental authority and to the written code. (2.) The laws are taught to every child in school and at home.

XXXIX.—(1.) The sacred books of China teach, that from the knowledge of oneself must proceed the proper family government, and from the government of a family must proceed that of a province or kingdom.

XL.—(1.) The emperor is called father of his empire ; a governor is called father of his province ; a mandarin, or city magistrate, is considered father of the city over which he presides. (2.) The father of every family is held to be the responsible ruler of his own household.

XLI.—(1.) In this manner, the principle of obedience to superiors is recognized through all grades of the people. (2.) Children obey and reverence their parents ; the young respect the aged ; the uneducated pay deference to the educated. (3.) All ranks unite in looking up to rulers set over them, and to the emperor as head and father of all.

XLII.—(1.) The people of Chinese communities sometimes hold public meetings for the purpose of addressing their magistrates. (2.) Honors are shown to worthy officials by a public presentation of some testimonial when he retires from office.

(2.) What of minor punishments ? (3.) What is the legal penalty for abusing a parent ?

XXXVIII.—(1.) What is the vital principle of Chinese government. (2.) What is said of the laws ?

XXXIX.—(1.) What do Chinese sacred books teach ?

XL.—(1.) What is said concerning the title of father ? (2.) What is each family father held to be ?

XLI.—(1.) What principle is in this manner recognized ? (2.) What is said regarding the practice of such obedience ? (3.) In what do all ranks unite ?

XLII.—(1.) What popular privileges have the Chinese ? (2.) How do they honor worthy magistrates ?

XLIII.—(1.) Education is strictly enjoined upon all children and youth, and incentives are offered for its acquisition. (2.) A book, called the Book of Sacred Instructions, is read in public by magistrates, upon days corresponding to the new and full moon. (3.) It contains sixteen discourses, teaching the duties of children to parents, juniors to elders, and the people to their governors.

XLIV.—(1.) The penal laws of China are all printed in cheap form, for general circulation. (2.) Every person is expected to become familiar with their operation, and act accordingly.

XLV.—(1.) Parents of children who offend against the laws are liable to be held responsible and punished. (2.) They are permitted to share in any honors conferred on their sons for the performance of meritorious actions.

XLVI.—(1.) Every town and village in China has a place of public instruction, and wealthy families employ private teachers for their children. (2.) The chief ground of selection to office, and promotion in rank, is the possession of cultivated talent.

XLVII.—(1.) In every city and district there are periodical examinations of students belonging to all classes of society. (2.) The poorest persons, as well as the wealthiest, may present claims for government employment. (3.) This makes every Chinese youth honorably ambitious to distinguish himself by study.

XLVIII.—(1.) At the public examinations, students are allowed to display their capacity and attainments. (2.) If government cannot appoint all to official places, it distributes honors, and

XLIII.—(1.) What is said of education in China? (2.) What book is read in public? (3.) What does this book contain?

XLIV.—(1.) What laws are generally circulated? (2.) What is expected from every person?

XLV.—(1.) What responsibility have parents? (2.) What distinctions are awarded them?

XLVI.—(1.) What is said of Chinese schools? (2.) What is the chief ground for selection to office?

XLVII.—(1.) What examinations are made? (2.) Who may claim to be candidates for official appointments? (3.) What is the effect of this?

XLVIII.—(1.) What are students allowed? (2.) What does the government do for worthy students?

promises future employment to the meritorious candidates eligible to preferment, either civil or military.

XLIX.—(1.) Civil officers in China are treated with greater consideration than military ones. (2.) At public festivals, the former precede the latter.

L.—(1.) All the military of the Chinese empire are under supervision of the military board at Pekin. (2.) This board musters the forces, whilst a board of revenue furnishes funds, and a board of public works provides supplies.

LI.—(1.) The emperor's guard is composed of Tartars, in eight divisions, of ten thousand soldiers each. (2.) The rest of the army is made up of Chinese regulars and the militia of provinces, amounting in all to about three-quarters of a million of men. (3.) The militia are engaged in other occupations, but receive a small sum per month for their service under arms.

LII.—(1.) The highest military rank in China is that of a Tartar general. (2.) Subordinate officers receive promotion according to desert, from the lowest grade. (3.) Officers and privates are alike subject to punishment with the bamboo by those set over them, for offences against regulations.

LIII.—(1.) The theory of Chinese government is despotic, through every grade, from the emperor down to the lowest officer. (2.) The people have a saying, that "the emperor is a charioteer—the royal ministers are his hands, officers below them are his reins, laws are the bits, and punishment the lash." (3.) The whole people are in this manner kept in harness and driven by higher authority.

XLIX.—(1.) How are civil officers treated? (2.) How is this shown?

L.—(1.) What is said of Chinese military? (2.) What authorities provide for mustering and support of soldiers?

LI.—(1.) Of what material is the emperor's guard composed? (2.) What makes up the rest of the army? (3.) What is said of the militia?

LII.—(1.) What is the highest military rank in China? (2.) What is said of subordinate officers? (3.) To what are all subordinates subject?

LIII.—(1.) What is the theory of Chinese government? (2.) What is a popular saying? (3.) What is remarked concerning this?

CHAPTER III.

JAPANESE MILITARY DESPOTISM.

I.—(1.) THE government of Japan is a despotism, hereditary in the families of two sovereigns. (2.) One of the sovereigns is spiritual, and the other military, head of the empire.

II.—(1.) The spiritual sovereign is called a Mikado, and resides in a sacred city from which he never removes. (2.) He is worshipped with divine honors, as one of the forms of the god Boodh. (3.) His council and officers superintend religion and education.

III.—(1.) The temporal and military sovereign is called the Siogun. (2.) He commands the armies, appoints subordinate rulers, and resides at the capital city, Jeddo. (3.) The empire under him is divided into eight circles, or governments. (4.) These are subdivided into provinces and districts, ruled through officers appointed by the siogun.

IV.—(1.) Every province, or large district, has two governors, each ruling six months of the year. (2.) Whilst one governor is at his post, the other remains in Jeddo, and receives regular reports from his colleague. (3.) Each governor has two secretaries, who control, by turns of six months, the subordinate affairs of a province. (4.) When a governor and his secretaries go to their posts, they are obliged to leave their families behind, in Jeddo, as hostages for their fidelity.

I.—(1.) What is the government of Japan? (2.) What is the distinction between the two sovereigns?

II.—(1.) What is said of the spiritual sovereign? (2.) What is his sacred character? (3.) What do his officers superintend?

III.—(1.) What is the siogun? (2.) What is said of the sovereign? (3.) How is the empire divided under him? (4.) What subdivisions are mentioned?

IV.—(1.) How is every province ruled? (2.) What is said of the governors? (3.) What of the secretaries? (4.) What are the governors obliged to do?

V.—(1.) The princes of the empire are the highest officers under the siogun. (2.) Each is compelled to spend half the time in his circle of government, and half the time in Jeddo. (3.) He is obliged to leave his family as security, whenever he is absent from the capital.

VI.—(1.) Governors are controlled by fixed orders, regulating their hours of sleeping, exercise and amusement. (2.) Their actions are strictly watched by spies placed near them by the government. (3.) The royal princes are watched in the same manner when on their rural domains. (4.) If two princes own neighboring estates, they are forbidden to reside on them at the same time, lest they may conspire together.

VII.—(1.) Princes are compelled to furnish money from their domains, to pay all expenses of the Japanese army. (2.) This drains their resources, and keeps them without the means of becoming dangerous to government.

VIII.—(1.) Next in authority to the princes, are lords who govern smaller domains, and are controlled in the same manner as their superiors. (2.) Under the lords are hereditary burgesses, who preside in the form of councils, over cities and large towns. (3.) Under these rulers are *ottonas*, who have charge of a ward or street of the city. (4.) A street of any city in Japan is a certain number of yards in length, shut by gates at both ends, and contains about a hundred houses.

IX.—(1.) Under the *ottonas*, or street governors, are overseers called *kasiras*, who have each charge of five houses and their resi-

V.—(1.) Who are highest officers under the siogun? (2.) What is each compelled to do? (3.) What security must be given?

VI.—(1.) How are governors controlled? (2.) How are their actions observed? (3.) What is said of royal princes? (4.) What are princes forbidden?

VII.—(1.) What are princes compelled to furnish? (2.) What effect does this have?

VIII.—(1.) Who are next in authority to the princes? (2.) Who are under the lords? (3.) Who are next in authority? (4.) What is said of a Japanese street?

IX.—(1.) Who are under the *ottonas*?

dents. (2.) In time of danger every house is required to furnish one man as a soldier. (3.) Five men form a troop, under command of the kasira; twenty troops march under the ottona. (4.) This constitutes a militia, ready at any emergency.

X.—(1.) Every head of a family is responsible for his neighbors and associates; and each of five adjoining householders is holden for another, and must report his conduct to the kasira. (2.) If he fails to do this, he becomes liable to punishment, by fine, stripes, or imprisonment in his own house.

XI.—(1.) Imprisonment of this kind is effected by boarding up doors and windows for a hundred days, more or less. (2.) While imprisoned, the householder is not allowed to shave, work at his trade, or receive pay for any office he holds.

XII.—(1.) No Japanese householder of the common people is permitted to remove from one house or street to another, without a certificate of good conduct from his neighbors. (2.) He must likewise obtain permission to dwell among other neighbors.

XIII.—(1.) Japanese population is divided into several castes, or classes. (2.) It is considered the duty of every man to remain in the class wherein he was born.

XIV.—(1.) The highest class is that of the princes. (2.) The second is that of noblemen, who hold lands by performing military service for a prince, or for the siogun himself. (3.) They do this by furnishing a certain number of soldiers, according to the value of the estates they hold. (4.) The third class is the priesthood,

(2.) What is required in time of danger? (3.) What is said of five men, and of twenty troops? (4.) What does this constitute?

X.—(1.) What is said regarding responsibility? (2.) What is the penalty for offending against this rule?

XI.—(1.) How is such imprisonment effected? (2.) How is a prisoner otherwise restrained?

XII.—(1.) What is a Japanese householder not permitted to do? (2.) What must he obtain?

XIII.—(1.) How is Japanese population divided? (2.) What is considered a duty?

XIV.—(1.) What is the highest class in Japan? (2.) What is the second? (3.) How is this service performed? (4.) What is the third class of Japanese?

whose wives are priestesses. (5.) These families live in religious houses near the temples of Boodh. (6.) The priests administer religious rites, grant absolution for sins, and are supported by contributions from pilgrims and other worshippers.

XV.—(1.) The fourth class comprises the military, and is composed of the vassals belonging to estates, equipped and provided by the lords and princes. (2.) The siogun has 100,000 foot, and 20,000 horse soldiers in his private service.

XVI.—(1.) The first four classes of Japanese are regarded as of higher rank than the second four. (2.) Of the latter, the first comprises the most respectable citizens, such as inferior officials, physicians, and scientific men. (3.) The next is composed of merchants and wealthy shopkeepers, who are restricted by law from buying luxuries, even with their own money, and prohibited from showing any ostentation of manners. (4.) The seventh class consists of small tradesmen, mechanics, artists, and all manufacturers, except leather-dressers.

XVII.—(1.) The eighth numbers all day laborers and peasants, the latter being serfs belonging to estates, and is much degraded. (2.) A ninth class is sometimes reckoned, comprising tanners, curriers, and all connected with the leather trade, which is considered to be an unclean business. (3.) These are outcasts from society, not being permitted to enter the houses of other men, and only allowed to act in cities as executioners and jailers.

XVIII.—(1.) The mikado, or spiritual sovereign, is a type of divine power, dwelling in his sacred city. (2.) He is allowed twelve wives, and hundreds of servants. (3.) Every article he uses is de-

(5.) Where do the priest-families reside? (6.) What is said of the priests?

XV.—(1.) What do the fourth class in Japan comprise? (2.) What does the siogun's military force number?

XVI.—(1.) What is said of the first four Japanese classes? (2.) What does the first of the lower division comprise? (3.) How is the next composed? (4.) Of what does the next, or seventh class consist?

XVII.—(1.) What does the eighth class number? (2.) What is said of a ninth class? (3.) What is the social character of these persons?

XVIII.—(1.) What is said of the mikado? (2.) What is he allowed? (3.) What is done with articles used by him?

stroyed when once used, as sacred to him only. (4.) The mikado enjoys no liberty, revenues, nor power, and is surrounded by spies of the siogun.

XIX.—(1.) The siogun lives in a palace at Jeddo, and seldom is seen abroad, except when he goes to visit the mikado at seasons of festival. (2.) The business of the government is confided to a council of state, composed of thirteen high dignitaries. (3.) This council decides upon all measures, and appoints or removes officers. (4.) It carries on correspondence with the different provinces and rulers.

CHAPTER IV.

RUSSIAN FEUDAL DESPOTISM.

I.—(1.) THE Russian empire has arisen out of the extending dominion of a northern nation called Muscovites. (2.) The predecessors of the present people comprised Scythian, Hungarian, Sarmatian, and other tribes, of ancient northern barbarians. (3.) The country now known as Russia was formerly governed by chiefs of independent clans.

II.—(1.) The Muscovite people remained in a state of barbarism till the reign of one of their monarchs, Peter the Great. (2.) Peter flourished about the beginning of the eighteenth century. (3.) He gave to his subjects laws and institutions, which have been modified and improved by later monarchs.

(4.) How is the mikado restricted?

XIX.—(1.) What is said of the siogun? (2.) Who carries on the business of his government? (3.) What is the authority of this body? (4.) Of what correspondence has it charge?

I.—(1.) From what has the Russian empire arisen? (2.) What were the predecessors of Russians? (3.) How were the Muscovites governed?

II.—1.) What is said of the Muscovite people? (2.) When did Peter the Great flourish? (3.) What is said of Peter?

III.—(1.) The government of Russia is an unlimited monarchy; or despotism. (2.) The emperor is called Czar, and Autocrat of all the Russias. (3.) The title Czar is equivalent to the German Kaiser, or that of Cæsar, held by ancient Roman emperors. (4.) It is thought the Russian emperors signify by it their pretensions to sovereignty over Constantinople and the eastern Roman empire, now controlled by the Turks.

IV.—(1.) The Autocrat of Russia is a hereditary ruler, and is obliged to profess the Greek or eastern Christian creed. (2.) He is assisted in the administration of government by four principal councils.

V.—(1.) The first of the four bodies is called the imperial council. (2.) Its members are selected from the higher nobility, or *boyards* of the empire. (3.) The boyards were, in early times, chiefs of tribes or communities. (4.) They are now the principal landholders of the country. (5.) The imperial council is presided over by the emperor himself, or his representative.

VI.—(1.) The imperial council is divided into five committees or boards, having each charge of a distinct department of administration. (2.) One of these boards supervises military matters; another civil and religious; a third, statistics and finance; a fourth, laws and ordinances; and a fifth, the affairs of provinces, including Poland and Finland. (3.) A secretary of state is placed at the head of each department.

VII.—(1.) The imperial council deliberates as a body, in assemblies of all its members, or through the members of committees,

III.—(1.) What is the form of Russian government? (2.) What are the emperor's titles? (3.) What is said of the title of Czar? (4.) What of its signification?

IV.—(1.) What is said of the Autocrat of Russia? (2.) How is he assisted in government?

V.—(1.) What is the first body called? (2.) How are its members appointed? (3.) What were the boyards formerly? (4.) What are they now? (5.) Who presides over the imperial council?

VI.—(1.) How is the council divided? (2.) What do the boards supervise? (3.) What is placed at the head of each?

VII.—(1.) How does the council deliberate?

each voting on its own affairs. (2.) A majority of votes in the assembly, or in a committee, decides for or against any measure. (3.) The emperor is not bound by any decision, but accepts or rejects, as he considers best, being supreme ruler.

VIII.—(1.) There is a legislative body in Russia called a senate, presided over by the Czar or his representative. (2.) This body issues laws, and is the highest court of justice in the empire. (3.) The emperor reserves the right of reversing its decisions or annulling its laws, by edicts or proclamations, regarded as the highest authority.

IX.—(1.) The Russian senate is divided into eight judicial bodies, or departments. (2.) Each constitutes a court having chief jurisdiction over particular provinces and districts. (3.) The senators comprising each high court make their decisions by a majority of voices. (4.) Two-thirds of the votes of a court are necessary to a decision. (5.) If two-thirds of a single court, or judicial department, cannot be obtained, all the members of the senate assemble as a judicial body.

X.—(1.) A code of laws is used in Russia for the guidance of high and low tribunals. (2.) It consists of a digest or selection of the laws and edicts issued by different emperors during two centuries.

XI.—(1.) A principal branch of Russian government is the Synod of bishops and other ecclesiastics. (2.) The established religion of Russia is that known as Greek or eastern Christianity. (3.) The head of the church, called the Patriarch, resides at Con-

(2.) What decides upon measures? (3.) How is the emperor affected by decisions of the council?

VIII.—(1.) What is said of a senate? (2.) What is its authority? (3.) What power has the emperor over it?

IX.—(1.) How is the Russian senate divided? (2.) What does each constitute? (3.) How are judicial decisions made? (4.) What proportion of votes decide? (5.) What is done if two-thirds of a single court cannot agree?

X.—(1.) What is said of laws? (2.) Of what does the code consist?

XI.—(1.) What is a principal branch of government? (2.) What is the religion of Russia? (3.) What is said of the patriarch?

stantinople. (4.) He is regarded to be chief bishop, as the Pope of Rome is considered chief bishop of the Romish church. (5.) The synod of bishops in Russia has charge of all matters relating to religion in the empire.

XII.—(1.) The College of Ministers is the name given to a body of officers appointed by the emperor, as heads of departments or bureaus. (2.) These ministers are thirteen in number, and superintend as many departments of the administration. (3.) They have direction of the army and navy, courts of justice, educational matters, and financial affairs.

XIII.—(1.) The ministers have a seat and voice in the imperial council, and also in the senate. (2.) Under the ministry are civil and military governors of districts and provinces. (3.) There are fifty-one inferior governments or districts. (4.) Forty are situated in Europe, and the rest in Asia and America.

XIV.—(1.) The civil affairs of every inferior district are conducted by a civil governor, and military matters by a commander. (2.) Several provinces combined are intrusted to a governor-general, with civil and military powers. (3.) This officer is responsible for the conduct of governors immediately under his direction.

XV.—(1.) The people of Russia are divided politically into four classes. (2.) First, are the clergy; next, the nobility; thirdly, merchants and burghers, or freemen; and fourthly, the serfs.

XVI.—(1.) The clergy are of two grades, regular and secular. (2.) The regular clergy are those belonging to special orders of the

(4.) How is he looked upon? (5.) Of what has the synod charge?

XII.—(1.) What is the College of Ministers? (2.) What is said of these ministers? (3.) What authority have they?

XIII.—(1.) Where do the ministers have a seat? (2.) What are under the ministry? (3.) How many inferior governments are there in Russia? (4.) Where are they established?

XIV.—(1.) How are provincial districts governed? (2.) What is said of a governor-general? (3.) For what is a governor-general responsible?

XV.—(1.) How are the Russian people politically divided? (2.) What are the distinctions?

XVI.—(1.) How are the clergy divided? (2.) What are the regular clergy?

priesthood. (3.) They constitute the higher church officials and dignitaries. (4.) The secular clergy are parish ministers, who are obliged to be married. (5.) They are poorly supported, and generally very ignorant.

XVII.—(1.) The nobles are of two grades, those claiming by birth, and those becoming such by service of the emperor. (2.) All officers of the army and navy, and all state functionaries, belong to some grade of nobility. (3.) There are fourteen of these grades, the lowest being a military ensign, or a college registrar.

XVIII.—(1.) Officials who attain by services to the eighth grade, gain hereditary nobility. (2.) The rank of all below that grade dies with its possessors. (3.) An army major, a navy captain, or a college assessor, may transmit his nobility to descendants. (4.) By these regulations the nobility of Russia is continually increasing in number.

XIX.—(1.) Merchants and burghers, called the free class, form six grades, not including the nobles or clergy. (2.) The six grades always comprise the three guilds of capitalists inhabiting towns, the trades, the professions, and the colonists.

XX.—(1.) Merchants of the first guild pay an annual sum of five hundred dollars for license to trade, and are unrestricted in commerce. (2.) Those of the second guild pay two hundred dollars annually, and are forbidden to make contracts exceeding \$10,000, or to open banking or insurance offices. (3.) Those of the third guild pay fifty dollars annually, and are allowed to carry on

(3.) What do they constitute? (4.) What are the secular clergy? (5.) What is said of the secular clergy?

XVII.—(1.) What are the grades of nobility. (2.) What is said of officials? (3.) How many grades of nobility are there?

XVIII.—(1.) What persons gain hereditary nobility? (2.) What is said of ranks below the eighth? (3.) What persons are mentioned as hereditary nobles? (4.) What is the consequence of these regulations?

XIX.—(1.) What do merchants and burghers form? (2.) What do these grades comprise?

XX.—(1.) What do merchants of the first guild pay? (2.) What do those of the second guild pay? (3.) What do those of the third guild pay?

retail trades or manufactures, but not to employ more than thirty-two workmen.

XXI.—(1.) Burghers who pay from five to fifteen dollars annually, are restricted as to the trades they shall follow and the number of workmen they may employ. (2.) Those who take out no license, are confined to certain limits, wherein to carry on their trades. (3.) All burghers are obliged to pay an annual head-tax. (4.) All are liable to be called upon to serve in the army.

XXII.—(1.) The fourth division of Russian population composed the masses of the nation. (2.) They constituted the class of peasantry or serfs, the lowest division of population. (3.) They were serfs belonging to the estates or lands whereon they were born.

XXIII.—(1.) The time and labor of serfs were claimed by the owner of the estate to which they pertained. (2.) A lord was permitted by law to inflict any punishment on his serfs that did not cause death within twenty-four hours afterward. (3.) The servants of an estate passed with the land which they occupied.

XXIV.—(1.) Of late years the condition of Russian peasants has been improved by humane laws and edicts of the emperor. (2.) Many millions of serfs who formerly belonged to the crown estates, have received their freedom. (3.) The great land proprietors of Russia have consented to the policy of making their serfs free, and allowing them small farms to cultivate for themselves.

XXV.—(1.) It is estimated that there were forty millions of serfs in Russia out of a population of sixty millions. (2.) The

XXI.—(1.) What is restricted in trade? (2.) How are unlicensed burghers restricted? (3.) What are all burghers obliged to pay? (4.) To what are all liable?

XXII.—(1.) What does the fourth class of population comprise? (2.) What did it constitute? (3.) What was its condition?

XXIII.—(1.) To whom did the time and labor of serfs belong? (2.) What authority was claimed by a master? (3.) How were tenants sold?

XXIV.—(1.) What has been done of late years? (2.) How have serfs been benefited? (4.) What are landholders now doing?

XXV.—(1.) How many serfs existed in Russia? (2.) How many nobles

noble ranks do not number a million persons. (3.) The remainder of the emperor's subjects, besides the burghers, include nine races of men, comprising eighty different tribes. (4.) Millions of these wander in nomadic communities, under chiefs, in the rudest state of barbarism.

XXVI.—(1.) For educational purposes, the government of Russia divides the country into university districts. (2.) In many of these districts chief colleges are now established. (3.) Each university district comprises several civil and military governments in its extent. (4.) The system of instruction embraces academies, or military schools, high schools, district schools, and parish schools. (5.) They are all superintended by the university officers, under direction of the Secretary of Public Instruction.

are there? (3.) What do the rest of Russian subjects include? (4.) What is said concerning these?

XXVI.—(1.) How is Russia divided for educational purposes? (2.) What are established? (3.) What does each district comprise? (4.) What does the system of instruction include? (5.) What is the superintending authority?

CHAPTER V.

THE PRUSSIAN MILITARY DESPOTISM.

I.—(1.) The Prussian nation is composed of descendants of a Seythian tribe named Borussians, who colonized a district of Germany. (2.) The government of Prussia at present is constituted on the system of a hereditary absolute monarchy, with a mixture of the representative principle in minor affairs. (3.) The king is military commander, and an irresponsible ruler of his subjects, all of whom are trained to bear arms.

II.—(1.) The king selects a cabinet of ministers, to assist him in the government, and appoints all judges and executive officers. (2.) He revises, changes, or makes laws, with the assistance of a council of state, constituted under his direction.

III.—(1.) The council of state is composed of all princes of the royal family, who are eighteen years old, together with the principal officers of departments. (2.) The council of state meets regularly on stated days, during nine months of the year.

IV.—(1.) Six committees are selected from members of the council at every annual session. (2.) The duties of these committees embrace the consideration of public policy. (3.) They have charge of business relating to foreign, military, financial, judicial, domestic, and educational branches of administration and law-making.

I.—(1.) What was the origin of the Prussian nation? (2.) How is the Prussian government constituted? (3.) What authority has the sovereign?

II.—(1.) How does the king organize his administration? (2.) What legislative power does he possess?

III.—(1.) How is the council of state composed? (2.) When does it meet?

IV.—(1.) What are selected? (2.) What are the duties of these committees? (3.) Of what business have they charge?

V.—(1.) Each state council committee consists of five members, not connected with that branch of government with whose policy they have to do. (2.) They possess authority to summon officials and other citizens to attend their sittings, as witnesses and advisers. (3.) The minister, as head of the department that is connected with a committee's labors, is required to be present when necessary, but speaks only by permission of the committee.

VI.—(1.) When a law or course of policy is discussed by a committee, the five members vote upon its adoption, and three voices decide in its favor. (2.) A report is then laid before the king, who may approve, reject, or change the proposition, according to his will. (3.) No law goes into operation without the king's permission and signature.

VII.—(1.) A secretary of state, appointed by the king, takes charge of laws, and causes them to be promulgated, after adoption. (2.) Every committee maintains a body of clerks for its business. (3.) The state council furnishes books containing all the laws of the kingdom, for official use and distribution.

VIII.—(1.) The administration of general authority is placed in charge of superintendents or ministers. (2.) One minister oversees the national accounts and debts. (3.) Another minister is at the head of spiritual or religious affairs. (4.) A third takes cognizance of matters connected with medical professions. (5.) A fourth superintends the education of the people, which is strictly enforced by law. (6.) The minister of each department exercises control over the publication of newspapers or books relating to the matters under his care.

V.—(1.) What is said of each committee? (2.) What authority do they possess? (3.) Who is required to be present at a committee's meetings?

VI.—(1.) How is a law acted upon in a committee? (2.) What action is then taken? (3.) What is necessary to a law?

VII.—(1.) What is done by a secretary of state? (2.) What does every committee maintain? (3.) What assistance is provided by the state council?

VIII.—(1.) What is said of administration? (2.) What does one minister do? (3.) What is another minister's position? (4.) Of what does a third take cognizance? (5.) What does a fourth minister superintend? (6.) What control is exercised by the ministers?

IX.—(1.) The kingdom is divided into eight provinces, politically arranged in larger districts called *governments* and *circles*, and smaller ones called *commonalties*. (2.) At the head of every province is a governor, known as the High President. (3.) He, by right of position, is a member of the council of state, in Berlin, the Prussian capital.

X.—(1.) A high president of a province is assisted in his administration by a provincial council, a secretary, and subordinate officials. (2.) He is responsible for all departments of civil authority, and acts in connection with the military commander, or general, of the province. (3.) The tax collectors and other provincial officers of the royal government are under his direction.

XI.—(1.) An aristocratic assembly, or body of landholders, meets annually, in every province of Prussia. (2.) This body is composed, firstly, of nobles, who appear as representatives of the largest land proprietors, and secondly, of delegates chosen from towns and rural districts, by wealthy possessors of the soil.

XII.—(1.) The provincial assembly members consider matters of interest to various districts, and prepare such measures of reform as they deem proper. (2.) These measures are sent to the king, through his ministers of state. (3.) The king may reject or approve them at his pleasure.

XIII.—(1.) Each Prussian province is politically sub-divided into lower administrations called *governments*. (2.) Each of these is conducted by a president and his assistants, called counsellors, responsible to the high president of the province. (3.) One coun-

IX.—(1.) How is the Prussian kingdom divided? (2.) Who is at the head of every province? (3.) Of what is he a member?

X.—(1.) How is a high president assisted? (2.) What responsibility has he? (3.) What officials are under his direction?

XI.—(1.) What provincial assembly meets annually? (2.) How is such a provincial assembly composed?

XII.—(1.) What action does the provincial assembly take? (2.) What becomes of measures adopted by an assembly? (3.) What power has the king over them?

XIII.—(1.) How are Prussian provinces sub-divided? (2.) How is each of these conducted? (3.) What do counsellors do?

seller oversees schools and churches ; another, the collection of taxes ; a third, the public, or king's lands. (4.) Matters of importance are deliberated upon in a meeting of all the counsellors of a district. (5.) The counsellors are appointed by the ministers of state. (6.) The inferior royal officers of a district are generally appointed by the president, and the government treasurer, or other responsible agent, is chosen by the body of counsellors.

XIV.—(1.) Each government, so called, is separated into inferior departments called *circles*. (2.) The public business of each circle is conducted by a commissioner or counsellor, appointed by the high president of the province, and a committee of burghers, belonging to a local representative council called a *Staande*.

XV.—(1.) The *Staande* of a circle is an assembly composed of the chief landholders and delegates chosen by towns and rural neighborhoods, called *commonalties*. (2.) The members of a *staande* in each circle are supposed to represent the inhabitants of cities, and the peasantry at large.

XVI.—(1.) Commonalties, in Prussia, are towns or parishes, whose minor local affairs are conducted on a somewhat democratic principle. (2.) The officials of a commonalty are classed as representatives and magistrates. (3.) The number of representatives in a commonalty varies according to the population, from twenty to over a hundred.

XVII.—(1.) Every house proprietor, or inhabitant, whose annual income is one hundred and fifty dollars, is entitled to cast a ballot for the choice of representatives. (2.) The body of repre-

(4.) How are matters of importance acted upon ? (5.) Who appoint the counsellors ? (6.) What is said of other officers ?

XIV.—(1.) How are the governments sub-divided ? (2.) How is public business conducted in the circles ?

XV.—(1.) What is the *staande* of a circle ? (2.) What do members of a *staande* represent ?

XVI.—(1.) What are Prussian *commonalties* ? (2.) How are the officials of a commonalty classed ? (3.) What is said of representatives ?

XVII.—(1.) What persons are entitled to vote for representatives in a commonalty ? (2.) What is done by the representatives ?

sentatives deliberate on public business, and choose the magistracy from their own members, to execute ordinances.

XVIII.—(1.) The magistracy of a commonalty are elected to office for three years. (2.) One of their number is selected by royal appointment to be the chief burgomaster, or mayor. (3.) The authority of mayor may be extended to twelve years, or for life.

XIX.—(1.) Commonalty representatives appoint committees of their members, in imitation of the committees of the council of state at the capital. (2.) These committees take charge of different local matters. (3.) Magistrates of a commonalty have no power to impose local taxes, or incur expenses, without sanction of the assembly of representatives. (4.) Reports of commonalty business are prepared by the representatives every year, and made public to the citizens.

XX.—(1.) The assembly of representatives in the commonalty of Berlin, capital of Prussia, consists of over a hundred members. (2.) The magistracy selected from this body comprise the upper burgomaster, a burgomaster, and the several judges and other officers called *syndics*. (3.) Under control of the magistracy, are committees on building, on trade, on public schools of the commonalty, on finances, on the poor, and on the fire department. (4.) All business connected with money is controlled by the assembly of representatives.

XXI.—(1.) The framework of Prussian government, from the council of state down to representatives of commonalties, is the result of various regulations made from time to time by the king.

XVIII.—(1.) What is the term of a magistrate's office? (2.) Who becomes chief burgomaster, or mayor? (3.) How long may the chief burgomaster hold office?

XIX.—(1.) What do commonalty representatives appoint? (2.) What is the business of committees so appointed? (3.) How is the power of magistrates restrained? (4.) What reports are made?

XX.—(1.) How many representatives compose the commonalty of Berlin? (2.) What officers do the Berlin magistracy comprise? (3.) What are under the control of this magistracy? (4.) What is said concerning money matters?

XXI.—(1.) Of what is Prussian government the result?

(2.) Whatever freedom is possessed by a citizen of Prussia, is considered as a privilege granted by the monarch to his subject. (3.) It is liable to be again taken away or modified by the supreme head of the State.

XXII.—(1.) In Prussia there is no positive aristocracy, claiming the privilege to hold offices in preference to other classes. (2.) Proper education is considered the best claim of a citizen to employment under government. (3.) Men of talent and merit, rather than birth and rank, are selected by the king and his ministers to fill places of trust and influence.

XXIII.—(1.) The nobility of Prussia hold no hereditary position or power as a class, except as persons of wealth or large estates. (2.) The influence of a public man under the Prussian government depends upon his personal character and abilities.

XXIV.—(1.) The system of national education in Prussia is very complete. (2.) The law prescribes that every individual shall go through a regular course of study. (3.) Each district, town, or parish, called a commonalty, is obliged to provide proper means of instruction for its children.

XXV.—(1.) In each commonalty a school-tax is imposed on every male inhabitant in proportion to his income. (2.) This school-tax is used to pay salaries of teachers, build school-houses and provide books.

XXVI.—(1.) The minister of public instruction at Berlin is superintendent of school affairs throughout the kingdom. (2.) For every circle, or county, there is an inspector appointed to supervise the schools of his district, and report to the authorities above him,

(2.) What is said of Prussian freedom? (3.) To what is it liable?

XXII.—(1.) What is said of aristocracy? (2.) How is education regarded? (3.) What persons are preferred for office?

XXIII.—(1.) What power have the Prussian nobility? (2.) On what does political influence depend?

XXIV.—(1.) What is said of Prussian education? (2.) What is prescribed by law? (3.) What is each commonalty obliged to provide?

XXV.—(1.) What personal tax is imposed? (2.) How is this tax used?

XXVI.—(1.) Who superintends educational matters? (2.) What is ap-

concerning their condition (3.) The educational committees of every district correspond regularly with the department of instruction at the capital.

XXVII.—(1.) Every parish school in Prussia is under supervision of local authorities, all directly controlled by the minister of instruction. (2.) The law requires every Prussian to send his children and dependents to a public elementary school from the age of seven to that of fourteen years. (3.) School hours are arranged so as to allow the children of poor people a portion of each day for employment in labor.

XXVIII.—(1.) Every child in Prussia is required to go through a certain course of elementary studies. (2.) No private school is allowed to be opened except by express permission of the authorities of a town. (3.) Laws concerning attendance at school, are carried out with the utmost strictness.

XXIX.—(1.) Every Prussian youth, after receiving his education, is obliged to bear arms as a soldier of the state. (2.) The law decides that every citizen is a soldier, and every soldier a citizen. (3.) All the male population able to serve are considered to compose the Prussian army.

XXX.—(1.) Every male, on reaching his twentieth birthday, is enrolled in the army, and obliged usually to serve five years. (2.) At the end of this term he is entitled to a discharge, or he may remain as a regular soldier in the *Landwehr* militia. (3.) The first class of *Landwehr* is composed of persons from twenty-five to thirty years of age, who are called out once a year in time of peace, and in war are made part of the king's troops.

pointed for every circle? (3.) What do educational committees do?

XXVII.—(1.) What authority directs parish schools? (2.) What is required by law? (3.) How are school hours arranged?

XXVIII.—(1.) What is required of every Prussian child? (2.) What is said of private schools? (3.) What of school laws?

XXIX.—(1.) What is every Prussian youth obliged to do? (2.) What does the law decide? (3.) How is the Prussian army composed?

XXX.—(1.) What is said of every male? (2.) What is provided at the end of this term of service? (3.) Of what is the first class of *Landwehr* composed?

XXXI.—(1.) At the age of thirty, a Prussian who remains in the service, passes into the second-class *Landwehr*, of which he continues a member till he is thirty-nine years old. (2.) This body of militia is called out only when the government is in great need of soldiers. (3.) The last military service of a Prussian is in the *Landsturm*, composed of persons between thirty-seven and fifty years old. (4.) This body is called to active service only when the district of its own residence is in danger.

XXXII.—(1.) The Prussian army, though under strict discipline, is not aristocratic in its organization. (2.) All ranks and promotions are open to those who possess merit and bravery. (3.) The king is general-in-chief, and can call out the whole force of Prussia to fight in his wars.

CHAPTER VI.

THE AUSTRIAN ABSOLUTE MONARCHY.

I.—(1.) WHEN the French emperor, Charlemagne, subdued the German settled nations, he established a subordinate government called *Oest-reich*, or the East Kingdom. (2.) Over this he placed a military governor, with a force to defend the province from barbarians.

II.—(1.) When the German or Holy Roman Empire separated from that of France, the province of *Oest-reich* passed with it. (2.) The German emperors then appointed governors, under the name

XXXI.—(1.) Where does a Prussian soldier go when thirty years old? (2.) What is said of the second class *Landwehr*? (3.) What is the last stage of military service? (4.) What is said of the *Landsturm*?

XXXII.—(1.) What is the character of the Prussian army? (2.) What is said of promotion? (3.) What authority has the king over the army?

I.—(1.) What is said of *Oest-reich*? (2.) What did Charlemagne place over this district?

II.—(1.) What became of *Oest-reich*? (2.) How was it then governed?

of *mark-grafs*, or lords of the borders. (3.) The name of Oestreich was afterward changed to Austria, and the territory grew in extent, and was governed by hereditary rulers under the title of dukes. (4.) One of the dukes of Austria succeeded to the government of the Holy Roman Empire, and the latter then became known as the empire of Austria.

III.—(1.) The government of Austria is an absolute monarchy, the king being hereditary and irresponsible head of the state. (2.) The empire consists of a number of provinces, more or less independent as regards local institutions.

IV.—(1.) The various provinces composing the empire have each a ministry or department in the Austrian capital, which is Vienna. (2.) The heads of these departments, or bureaus, are assisted by subordinate officers. (3.) They are means of communication between the imperial government and the local councils of various provinces.

V.—(1.) Hungary, Transylvania, and some Italian states retain many of their own institutions and laws. (2.) Governors are appointed by the Emperor of Austria, to preside over local councils chosen by the inhabitants.

VI.—(1.) The ancient kingdom of Hungary is an Austrian province. (2.) Its population is divided into several distinct races, descended from various Hunnish, Pannonian, and Sarmatian tribes. (3.) Hungary was, during many centuries, an independent kingdom, with monarchs elected from a single family.

(3.) To what was its name changed? (4.) What was the beginning of the Austrian empire?

III.—(1.) What is the Austrian government? (2.) Of what does the empire consist?

IV.—(1.) What is said of Austrian provinces? (2.) How are the heads of provincial bureaus at the capital assisted? (3.) Of what are they the means?

V.—(1.) What is said of certain Austrian provinces? (2.) How are they ruled under the imperial government?

VI.—(1.) What is said of Hungary? (2.) How is its population divided? (3.) What was Hungary in ancient times?

VII.—(1.) The hereditary sovereign of Hungary was replaced by an officer appointed by the Austrian government, under the title of Statthalter. (2.) The German language, as spoken in Vienna, is made the language of all legal communication. (3.) Austrian officers fill most of the offices of state. (4.) A legislative council, composed of nobility and landholders, meets in the chief city.

VIII.—(1.) Bohemia, another ancient kingdom, is also a province of the Austrian empire. (2.) It was, in early times, possessed by different barbarous tribes, called Marcomanni, Boii, and Czechs. (3.) It is governed by Austrian officials, under direction of the emperor.

IX.—(1.) Transylvania, a third province of the empire, is inhabited by fourteen different tribes or races. (2.) The lower classes profess the Greek religion, and are without instruction or social consideration. (3.) The Emperor of Austria appoints all crown officials, but the Transylvanians have their own legislative assembly called a diet. (4.) The members of this body are selected from the three principal classes of landholders in Transylvania. (5.) They form two chambers, and make or change local laws. (6.) The population is divided into three classes—nobles, burghers, and peasantry. (7.) The last are mostly serfs, like the lower class of Russian population.

X.—(1.) Moravia, a fourth Austrian province, was formerly an independent kingdom, comprising Bohemia, Silesia, and parts of northern Germany and Hungary. (2.) The government is now administered by an officer appointed by the emperor, in connection with a diet composed of clergy, nobility, and citizens.

VII.—(1.) How was the sovereign of Hungary replaced? (2.) What is the official language of Hungary? (3.) What persons are appointed to office in Hungary? (4.) What is said of a legislative council?

VIII.—(1.) What is Bohemia? (2.) Who were original inhabitants of Bohemia? (3.) How is Bohemia now governed?

IX.—(1.) What is said of Transylvania? (2.) What is the character of its lower classes? (3.) What is the government? (4.) What persons compose the Transylvanian Diet? (5.) What is said of its members? (6.) How is the Transylvanian population divided? (7.) Of what is the last mostly composed?

X.—(1.) What is said about Moravia? (2.) What is its government?

XI.—(1.) The Italian provinces possessed by Austria comprised, until 1859, the capitals of Milan, Venice, Verona, Mantua, Padua, cities once belonging to the Roman empire. (2.) Austrian rule is now exercised only over Venice, which is ruled by governors, under the title of viceroys.

XII.—(1.) The Emperor of Austria is supreme sovereign of all nationalities combined under his sway. (2.) He appoints and removes officials, whether military or civil, except in a few cases provided for by recognized laws. (3.) The bureaux, or ministerial bodies, representing different countries, receive orders from the emperor and council, and transmit them to districts under their superintendence.

XIII.—(1.) A ministry of justice, with two presidents, composes the chief tribunal of Austria. (2.) Its members meet in two bodies at different points of the empire. (3.) In the original territory of Austria education is generally diffused. (4.) In remote provinces the people are little better than savage boors.

CHAPTER VII.

BRUNSWICK—SAXONY—WURTEMBERG.

I.—(1.) THE Duchy of Brunswick is governed as a limited independent monarchy. (2.) The legislature is composed of the duke and two chambers, an upper and a lower one. (3.) The upper chamber consists of nobles entitled to seats by the possession of a

XI.—(1.) What Italian provinces were till recently under Austrian government? (2.) Over what Italian province does Austria still rule?

XII.—(1.) What is the emperor's authority? (2.) What does he do with officials? (3.) What is said of bureaux or departments under government?

XIII.—(1.) What is the chief judicial body of Austria? (2.) Where do its members meet? (3.) What is said of education? (4.) What is said of distant provinces possessed by Austria?

I.—(1.) How is the Duchy of Brunswick governed? (2.) Of what is the legislature composed? (3.) What persons compose the upper chamber?

certain rank and property, and of the six highest prelates in the church. (4.) The lower chamber is formed of six lower prelates, nineteen deputies, chosen by towns, and nineteen delegates, elected by landholders, to represent the rural districts.

II.—(1.) The legislature assembles once in three years, to regulate taxes and supervise laws. (2.) The duke is hereditary ruler, and is assisted by three ministers of his own appointment. (3.) For administrative purposes, the state is divided into six circles, or provinces. (4.) Over each of these a board of officers is established, to conduct the affairs of towns and villages. (5) The Duchy of Brunswick has two votes in the *plenum*, or full assembly of the German Confederation.

THE KINGDOM OF SAXONY.

III.—(1.) Descendants of ancient Saxons, whose soldiers once invaded and conquered Britain, now occupy a part of German territory possessed by their ancestors. (2.) They are governed under the form of a limited hereditary monarchy called Saxony.

IV.—(1.) The king and a legislature of two chambers compose the law-making power. (2.) The government is administered by the monarch through officers of his own appointment.

V.—(1.) The higher legislative chamber is composed of princes of the royal family, certain specified nobles and public officers, who sit by privilege, twelve deputies chosen by the largest land-proprietors for life, and ten members nominated for life by the king.

(4.) How is the lower chamber formed?

II.—(1.) What does the legislature do? (2.) What is the Duke of Brunswick? (3.) How is the state divided? (4.) What is placed over each circle? (5.) What proportion of influence has Brunswick in the German Confederation?

III.—(1.) What is said of the Saxons? (2.) Under what form are they governed?

IV.—(1.) What is the law-making power of Saxony? (2.) How is government administered?

V.—(1.) How is the higher chamber constituted?

(2.) The lower chamber consists of twenty delegates elected by large landholders, twenty-five chosen by towns, twenty-five representing rural districts, and five chosen by traders and artisans.

(3.) A substitute is appointed for each member of the lower chambers, to act in case of the death or disability of his principal.

VI.—(1.) Judicial affairs are conducted in Saxony by three classes of courts, over which is a supreme court, held at Dresden, the capital. (2.) Magistrates are generally selected from the proprietors of land and nobility.

VII.—(1.) The kingdom of Saxony is one of the states of the German Confederation. (2.) It casts four votes in the *plenum*, or full council.

THE KINGDOM OF WURTEMBERG.

VIII.—(1.) The kingdom of Wurtemberg is another state of the German Confederation, having four votes in the full council. (2.) It is governed as a hereditary constitutional monarchy. (3.) The king and a parliament of two chambers constitute the legislative power.

IX.—(1.) The upper chamber is composed of hereditary nobles and land-proprietors, sitting for life. (2.) The lower chamber is representative, having ninety-four delegates chosen by the large towns and village districts. (3.) A supreme court forms the chief tribunal of justice. (4.) There are courts in each of the four circles or departments of the kingdom.

(2.) Of what does the lower chamber consist? (3.) What is said of a substitute?

VI.—(1.) What is the Saxon judiciary? (2.) What persons are magistrates?

VII.—(1.) What is said of the kingdom of Saxony? (2.) What is its influence in that confederation?

VIII.—(1.) What is the kingdom of Wurtemberg? (2.) What is its form of government? (3.) What constitute the legislative power?

IX.—(1.) Of what is the upper chamber composed? (2.) What is said of the lower chamber? (3.) What is the chief judicial tribunal? (4.) What minor courts are there?

X.—(1.) The people of Wurtemberg are descendants of ancient Frankish and other German tribes. (2.) Their territory formerly belonged to the kingdom of France.

XI.—(1.) Smaller kingdoms, duchies, and principalities, forming the German Confederation, are governed more or less like those here cited as examples. (2.) The usual apportionment of legislative power is between hereditary land proprietors, or nobility and clergy, on one side, and on the other, representatives of the towns and peasantry. (3.) A few of the small states are still governed according to feudal usages, and the common people possess no rights whatever. (4.) The examples given suffice to explain various descriptions of governments exercised in German states.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE DANISH KINGDOM.

I.—(1.) THE inhabitants of Denmark are descendants of the people called Scandinavians. (2.) The Scandinavians belonged to that great family of barbarians who conquered the Roman empire. (3.) They invaded England and France under the general name of Northmen or Normans.

X.—(1.) What are the people of Wurtemberg? (2.) To what country did their territory belong?

XI.—(1.) What is said of other States of the German Confederation? (2.) What is the usual apportionment of legislative power in each of them? (3.) How are a few small states governed? (4.) What is said of the examples given?

I.—(1.) From what race are the inhabitants of Denmark descended? (2.) To what family did the Scandinavians belong? (3.) What countries did they invade?

II.—(1.) These people were originally separated in small tribes or clans, as were all Gothic races. (2.) They combined at different periods to form the three nations of Danes, Norwegians, and Swedes.

III.—(1.) The Danes established an independent kingdom, with a sovereign elected by three divisions of the population. (2.) First were nobles, second clergy, third the common people. (3.) This elective form continued till 1660, when it was changed to an absolute hereditary monarchy. (4.) It has since been modified, and the king governs by a constitution.

IV.—(1.) The sovereign of Denmark must be a member of the Lutheran church, which is the state religion. (2.) He is assisted in legislation by a diet, or parliament, composed of two houses. (3.) The upper house, or senate, is called the *Landething*, or Landholder's Court. (4.) Any citizen who pays two hundred rix-dollars per year in taxes, or has an income of twelve hundred rix-dollars per annum, may be elected a senator, provided he is forty-one years old.

V.—(1.) The lower body, or house of commons, is called the *Volksting*, or People's Court. (2.) Any citizen who is entitled to vote, and is twenty-five years old, may be chosen a member of the *Volksting*. (3.) The right to vote is enjoyed by every householder thirty years old, who is of sane mind and not indebted to the government.

VI.—(1.) Members of the *Landething* are chosen for eight

II.—(1.) How were the early Northmen originally separated? (2.) What is said of their combinations?

III.—(1.) What did the Danes establish? (2.) What were the divisions? (3.) When was the elective form of monarchy changed? (4.) What has since taken place?

IV.—(1.) What is required of the Danish sovereign? (2.) How is he assisted? (3.) What is said of the upper house? (4.) What persons may become senators?

V.—(1.) What is the lower chamber of Danish legislators? (2.) What persons may become members of the *Volksting*? (3.) What persons have the right to vote in Denmark?

VI.—(1.) What is the term for which members of the *Landething* are

years. (2.) Those of the *Volkesthing* are chosen for three years
(3.) The Diet of Denmark holds annual sessions.

VII.—(1.) Several provinces annexed to the Danish government retain their own institutions and laws. (2.) Among them are Schleswig and Holstein, formerly German states.

CHAPTER IX.

NORWAY AND SWEDEN.

I.—(1.) NORWAY was formerly an independent hereditary kingdom. (2.) It subsequently became a limited monarchy, with democratic institutions, and was finally united as a joint kingdom with Sweden. (3.) The king of Sweden is also sovereign of Norway, and each nation has its own parliament and constitution.

II.—(1.) The legislature of Norway is called the *Storthing*, or Great Court. (2.) It is divided into two chambers, one comprising one-fourth, and the other three-quarters of the members chosen. (3.) The smallest chamber is called the *Lagthing*, the largest is called the *Odelsting*. (4.) Each chooses its own president and secretary, but all measures must be originated in the larger body.

III.—(1.) Laws and modifications may be presented to the legislature either by its members or by the government. (2.) The king possesses a veto power, but the votes of three successive

chosen? (2.) How long are members of the *Volksting* elected to serve? (3.) When does the Diet meet?

VII.—(1.) What is said of Danish provinces? (2.) What provinces are mentioned?

I.—(1.) What was Norway formerly? (2.) What did it subsequently become? (3.) Who is sovereign of Norway?

II.—(1.) What is the Norwegian legislature? (2.) How is the *Storthing* divided? (3.) What are the two chambers called? (4.) What is said concerning them?

III.—(1.) How are laws proposed in Norway? (2.) What is said of the

Storthings overrule a veto. (3.) The storthing is elected for three years.

IV.—(1.) The Lutheran religion is established in both Sweden and Norway. (2.) The king must be a professor of it, and so must all government officers. (3.) The right to vote is general under the constitution of both kingdoms.

V.—(1.) The educational and religious laws of Norway are strict and comprehensive. (2.) In Norway, every child is obliged to be confirmed in the Lutheran church between the ages of fourteen and seventeen. (3.) Confirmation is only allowed to be given to youths who can read. (4.) Persons are forbidden to marry unless they have a certificate of confirmation, as members of the Lutheran church. (5.) Every individual who reaches twenty years of age without confirmation, is liable to be sent to a house of correction, till instructed and made eligible to receive the rite.

VI.—(1.) Schools are established in every parish of Norway. (2.) Hospitals are erected in all the principal towns, and each community is obliged to support its local poor. (3.) Begging is punished as an offence against the law.

VII.—(1.) SWEDEN is a hereditary monarchy, governed, like Norway, under its own constitution. (2.) The parliament, or Diet, of Sweden is composed of four chambers, meeting separately. (3.) Members of the highest chamber represent the hereditary nobility of Sweden. (4.) They comprise the heads of all noble families in the kingdom, who sit by right of birth.

veto power? (3.) For what term is the Storthing elected?

IV.—(1.) What is said of religion? (2.) What is required of officials? (3.) What is said of the right to vote?

V.—(1.) What laws are strict in Norway? (2.) What is enjoined upon every child? (3.) To what youths is the rite of confirmation limited? (4.) What is forbidden to persons not confirmed? (5.) What severe penalty is made regarding confirmation?

VI.—(1.) What is said of Norwegian schools? (2.) What of hospitals? (3.) How is begging treated?

VII.—(1.) What is said of Sweden? (2.) What of the Swedish Diet? (3.) What do members of the highest chamber represent? (4.) What persons do they comprise?

VIII.—(1.) The second chamber represents the clergy and church interests. (2.) Its members consist of the archbishop, twelve bishops, and about sixty deputies from various dioceses. (3.) The third chamber represents inhabitants of towns and cities, and numbers ninety-seven burghers or citizens, of whom the capital city, Stockholm, sends ten.

IX.—(1.) The fourth chamber represents the rural districts of Sweden. (2.) It numbers one hundred and forty-four deputies, chosen by the landholding peasantry.

X.—(1.) The votes of a majority of three houses out of the four, with the king's consent, are sufficient to make laws. (2.) The constitution cannot be changed unless the four chambers agree to it. (3.) The king of Sweden has an absolute veto on laws.

XI.—(1.) The king of Sweden is responsible only through his ministers. (2.) He is assisted in the administration of government by a council of state, of his own selection. (3.) This council consists of two ministers of justice and foreign affairs, and eight counsellors. (4.) Five of the eight counsellors are heads of as many departments of public affairs. (5.) The other three are private advisers of the monarch.

XII.—(1.) The state religion, like that of Norway, is Lutheran, of which the king and principal officers must be professors. (2.) The sovereign is head of the church, and appoints the higher clergy to their offices. (3.) The lower clergy, or preachers and pastors, are selected by the people.

VIII.—(1.) What does the second chamber represent? (2.) How is it composed? (3.) What does the third chamber represent and number?

IX.—(1.) What does the fourth chamber represent? (2.) How many members has it?

X.—(1.) What authority makes the laws? (2.) How is the constitution secured from alteration? (3.) What power does the king possess?

XI.—(1.) What is the sovereign's responsibility? (2.) By what body is he assisted? (3.) How is the council of state composed? (4.) What are five of the eight counsellors? (5.) What are the other three?

XII.—(1.) What is said of the state religion? (2.) What relation does the sovereign hold to it? (3.) Who appoints the lower clergy?

XIII.—(1.) The laws regarding education in Sweden are very strict. (2.) Every parent is obliged to send his children to school, or provide for their instruction at home.

XIV.—(1.) The civil divisions of Sweden and Norway consist of provinces, counties, and parishes. (2.) Governors and magistrates are appointed by the sovereign, to act as royal officials and judges. (3.) There are three superior courts in Sweden, with subordinate tribunals for minor causes. (4.) District tribunals, called Harad-courts, are the lowest and most numerous.

CHAPTER X.

GOVERNMENT OF GREAT BRITAIN.

I.—(1.) WHEN the Roman state extended its conquests to all known lands, several generals invaded the islands now known as Great Britain. (2.) These Romans found the country inhabited by tribes of people whom they called Gauls.

II.—(1.) The natives were divided into many tribes, independent of one another, and each governed by a headman, assisted by priests. (2.) The priests, or druids, were judges of the people. (3.) They exerted great religious influence over individuals and the tribes.

III.—(1.) The Romans planted colonies, and established their laws and magistrates over the Britons. (2.) They afterward re-

XIII.—(1.) What laws are strict? (2.) What is required of every parent?

XIV.—(1.) What are the civil divisions of Sweden and Norway? (2.) What appointments are made by the king? (3.) What is said of the judiciary? (4.) What are the lowest courts?

I.—(1.) By whom were the British islands invaded? (2.) Who were their native inhabitants?

II.—(1.) How were the natives divided? (2.) Who were judges of the people? (3.) What was their authority?

III.—(1.) What did the Romans do? (2.) What afterward took place?

linquished possession of the country, and the native tribes relapsed into wars among themselves.

IV.—(1.) The islanders of England were distinct from those of Ireland and Scotland. (2.) The former were descended of a Gothic tribe called Angles, and the latter sprang from other barbarous invaders of earlier ages. (3.) The inhabitants of the present English districts were called Britons ; the others were known as Pictish and Scottish tribes.

V.—(1.) After the Romans left them, the Britons were not able to defend themselves against their wild neighbors. (2.) They appealed to the Saxons of Germany for help, and the latter nation sent over an army under several chiefs. (3.) The Saxons defeated the Scots and Picts, and subdued the British, as the Romans had previously done.

VI.—(1.) The conquered country was divided, under Saxon chiefs, into seven territories. (2.) Each chief took possession of his share, and established an independent kingdom. (3.) The seven kingdoms continued separate nearly four hundred years, after which they were united in a single nation.

VII.—(1.) Under Alfred, a king of the combined Saxon nations, the foundation of English, or Anglo-Saxon, monarchy was laid. (2.) This monarch organized a plan of government, and established many excellent laws, that are in operation even at the present time.

VIII.—(1.) Alfred divided all the English territory into districts, called counties. (2.) These counties were again divided into

IV.—(1.) What distinctions were there between inhabitants of the British islands? (2.) What is said concerning the different islanders? (3.) What were the names of ancient island tribes?

V.—(1.) What is said of the Britons? (2.) What took place? (3.) What did the Saxons do?

VI.—(1.) What was done with the conquered country? (2.) What did each Saxon chief do? (3.) What is said of the seven kingdoms?

VII.—(1.) When was the foundation of Anglo-Saxon monarchy laid? (2.) What did the monarch do?

VIII.—(1.) What territorial divisions did Alfred make? (2.) How were the

portions termed hundreds. (3.) The hundreds were separated into smaller parts, known as tithings, or fribourgs.

IX.—(1.) A tithing consisted of ten householders living in one neighborhood. (2.) Over every tithing one man was appointed as head, called a tithing-man, or borgh-holder. (3.) The word *borgh*, in Saxon, signified "*security*," and the borgh-holder was security for the ten men of his tithing. (4.) Each householder of a tithing was responsible for the conduct of his own family.

X.—(1.) Every inhabitant was obliged to register himself as belonging to some tithing, or he was liable to punishment as an outlaw. (2.) No householder was allowed to change his habitation without permission of the tithing-man, or borgh-holder.

XI.—(1.) When any person was accused of offence against law, the borgh-holder was first summoned to answer. (2.) If the borgh-holder refused to become responsible, the offender was sent to prison to be tried. (3.) If he effected his escape, his borgh-holder was liable to punishment or penalty.

XII.—(1.) The borgh-holder was judge in all matters of difference between householders of his tithing. (2.) He usually called the whole ten together and laid the matter of dispute before them for decision. (3.) If the judgment were unsatisfactory, an appeal could be made from the tithing to the hundred.

XIII.—(1.) The hundred, or *wapentake*, consisted of ten tithings, or one hundred families of freemen. (2.) It had regular meetings

counties divided? (3.) How were the hundreds separated?

IX.—(1.) What was a tithing? (2.) What was a borgh-holder? (3.) What is said concerning the word "*borgh*?" (4.) For what was a householder responsible?

X.—(1.) What was required of every inhabitant? (2.) What restriction was placed on householders?

XI.—(1.) What is said of the borgh-holder? (2.) What was done if the borgh-holder would not be responsible? (3.) To what was a borgh-holder liable?

XII.—(1.) What authority had the borgh-holder? (2.) What did he usually do? (3.) To what authority could an appeal be made?

XIII.—(1.) Of what did a wapentake consist? (2.) What is said of its

once a month, to hear and determine all causes. (3.) Twelve freeholders were chosen out of the assembly, who were sworn to decide impartially, and each cause was confided to their deliberation. (4.) This was the origin of trial by jury in England.

XIV.—(1.) The next court above an assembly of the hundred was called a County Court. (2.) This body convened twice in every year, and was composed of all the freeholders in a county. (3.) The bishops and aldermen were presidents of the county courts. (4.) All appeals from the tithings and hundreds, and all disputes between different hundreds, were passed upon in this assembly.

XV.—(1.) The alderman, or governor, of a county was usually the chief noble and land proprietor. (2.) The bishop was head of the priests, who officiated as teachers of the people. (3.) Another officer, called a *Shire-reeve*, or sheriff, was appointed by the king to collect taxes and fines, and represent the royal authority in the assembly of the county.

XVI.—(1.) All questions not satisfactorily decided in the lower courts, were reserved for the king's judgment. (2.) The county courts, or assemblies, were termed *Shire-motes*. (3.) Freeholders who composed them were each entitled to one vote in all matters of business.

XVII.—(1.) When fines or penalties were imposed by a shire-mote, one-third of the amount was received by the alderman or earl. (2.) The remaining two-thirds were paid to the sheriff, to go into the royal treasury.

meetings? (3.) What body of freeholders was chosen as a minor court? (4.) Of what was this body the origin?

XIV.—(1.) What was the next court above an assembly of the Hundred? (2.) What is said of this body? (3.) Who presided over county courts? (4.) What business was transacted in these courts?

XV.—(1.) What is said of the alderman? (2.) What of the bishop? (3.) What other officer is mentioned?

XVI.—(1.) What was done with questions not terminated in lower courts? (2.) What were county assemblies called? (3.) To what were their members entitled?

XVII.—(1.) What is said of fines or penalties? (2.) What amount was paid to the sheriff?

XVIII.—(1.) The aristocratic class of Saxons was composed of two ranks, called *Thanes*, or nobles. (2.) Those of higher rank were termed king's *thanes*, or nobles who received their land by the king's grant. (3.) The lower rank consisted of nobles who held estates by paying rents or military service to the king's thanes.

XIX.—(1.) Any merchant who made three long sea voyages on his own account, was entitled by one of the Saxon laws to be called a thane. (2.) Another law provided that a farmer who owned five *hides* of land, or a thousand acres, and possessed a chapel, a kitchen, a hall and a bell, might claim to be a thane, or inferior noble.

XX.—(1.) Farmers and freemen of the untitled classes were called *Ceoiles*, or churls. (2.) They were tenants on the land owned by thanes. (3.) All below the churls were considered to be slaves. (4.) Prisoners taken in war, among early Saxons, were made slaves, and confined to the land as menials and laborers. (5.) Many of the original Britons were made slaves by their Saxon conquerors.

XXI.—(1.) The greater portion of soil under Anglo-Saxon government was divided into crown-lands, or estates belonging to the king, lands of the church, and lands of the thanes. (2.) The remainder was cultivated or occupied by small freeholders and inhabitants of cities and villages. (3.) These lands were classed in two kinds—*Book-land*, which was held by registry in a book, and *Folk-land*, held by lease, from time to time.

XXII.—(1.) The military force of Anglo-Saxons consisted of militia, or citizen soldiers. (2.) Every thousand acres was obliged

XVIII.—(1.) What constituted the Saxon aristocracy? (2.) What were the king's thanes? (3.) Of what nobles did the lower rank consist?

XIX.—(1.) How could nobility be obtained by other persons? (2.) What other law made provision for obtaining nobility?

XX.—(1.) What were freemen of the untitled classes called? (2.) What was their position? (3.) How were persons below the churls regarded? (4.) What persons were made slaves by early Saxons? (5.) What is said of original Britons?

XXI.—(1.) How was the soil divided? (2.) How was the remainder used? (3.) How were these lands classed?

XXII.—(1.) Of what did the military force consist? (2.) How were the

to furnish a man in time of war ; and in seasons of danger, every freeman was summoned to bear arms. (3.) The general force of the kingdom, under these regulations, comprised about fifty thousand men.

XXIII.—(1.) The Anglo-Saxon frame of government continued in England till the island was invaded and subdued by Normans from France. (2.) William, the Norman conqueror, established his power by making grants of territory in England to his principal captains and nobles.

XXIV.—(1.) The government of England, under William's successors, remained for many centuries a monarchy, more or less absolute, according to the personal character of a king. (2.) The administration of civil and military affairs was intrusted to persons selected from the landed aristocracy.

XXV.—(1.) After the Normans settled on English lands, the administration of law and justice was made to conform to the feudal system. (2.) At times, as in France, there was a parliament assembled. (3.) This was a national council, composed of the nobility, or barons, of England. (4.) The affairs of counties and cities were conducted under a mixed system of ancient Saxon customs and feudal usages, by local magistrates and courts.

XXVI.—(1.) A share in the legislative branch of the English government was afterward extended from nobility or barons, to other classes of the people. (2.) The frame of government changed from an oligarchy, consisting of monarch and lords, to an aristocracy, formed of king, nobility, and certain privileged classes.

forces raised ? (3.) What was the general strength of this militia ?

XXIII.—(1.) How long did Anglo-Saxon government last ? (2.) What did William the Norman do ?

XXIV.—(1.) What government was established by the Normans ? (2.) What persons exercised authority ?

XXV.—(1.) To what system was the administration made to conform ? (2.) What was assembled at times ? (3.) Of what persons was the parliament composed ? (4.) How were town and county affairs conducted ?

XXVI.—(1.) How was the legislative power extended ? (2.) How did the frame of government change ?

XXVII.—(1.) At the present time, the constitutional government of great Britain rests upon a hierarchal aristocracy. (2.) It is composed of three legislative departments, one of which is also the executive, or administration. (3.) These three departments are the *House of Commons*, the *House of Lords*, and the queen, assisted by her ministers, or *Privy Council*.

XXVIII.—(1.) The House of Commons is composed of six hundred and fifty-eight members. (2.) Two hundred and fifty-three of these are chosen from counties, three hundred and ninety-nine from cities and towns, called boroughs, and six from the universities, or colleges of Great Britain.

XXIX.—(1.) No person is entitled to vote for members of the House of Commons, unless he be possessed of a certain amount of property, or pays a certain yearly rent. (2.) The privilege of voting for a borough member is gained by any citizen who occupies a house for which he pays fifty dollars yearly rent. (3.) The right to vote for a county member of parliament is possessed by a citizen who owns land or houses valued at fifty dollars a year, or pays a yearly rent of two hundred and fifty dollars.

XXX.—(1.) A session of the House of Commons cannot extend to more than seven years. (2.) Four hundred and seventy-one members are elected from England, one hundred and five from Ireland, fifty-three from Scotland, and twenty-nine from Wales.

XXXI.—(1.) The House of Lords is composed of persons belonging to the titled aristocracy, or peerage of Great Britain.

XXVII.—(1.) On what does the government of Great Britain now rest? (2.) How is it composed? (3.) What are the three departments?

XXVIII.—(1.) Of what number of members is the House of Commons composed? (2.) How are these variously chosen?

XXIX.—(1.) How is the privilege of voting restricted? (2.) How is the privilege of voting for a borough member gained? (3.) How may a person be privileged to vote for a county member of parliament?

XXX.—(1.) To what term of years is a parliamentary session limited? (2.) How are England, Ireland, Scotland, and Wales proportionately represented in parliament?

XXXI.—(1.) How is the House of Lords composed?

(2.) They are distinguished as lords temporal and lords spiritual. (3.) The lords temporal occupy seats by right of birth, as representatives of privileged families to which they belong. (4.) The lords spiritual are bishops and archbishops of the English church, established by law as the hierarchy of the country.

XXXII.—(1.) The House of Lords is classified according to the rank of its members in the nobility. (2.) Princes of the royal blood are highest, and the other lords consist of English-archbishops, dukes, marquises, earls, viscounts, English bishops, Irish prelates, barons, representative peers of Scotland, and representative peers of Ireland. (3.) The monarch has power to create new peers from the untitled classes, when it is desirable to do so.

XXXIII.—(1.) The two houses of lords and commons, and the monarch, compose a legislature called the Imperial Parliament. (2.) They are supposed to represent the three estates or conditions, of sovereignty, nobility, and citizenship.

XXXIV.—(1.) The parliaments pass laws, impose taxes, borrow money, and watch over the different branches of administration. (2.) The assent of the sovereign is necessary before any act of parliament becomes binding. (3.) All propositions for the raising of money for government expenses must originate in the House of Commons. (4.) This insures to the lower, or popular, body, the power of checking any improper action of the aristocratic branch of legislation.

XXXV.—(1.) The House of Commons elects from its members a presiding officer called the *Speaker*. (2.) Communications between

(2.) How are the members distinguished? (3.) What is said of the lords temporal? (4.) What of the lords spiritual?

XXXII.—(1.) How is the House of Lords classified? (2.) What are the various ranks? (3.) What power has the monarch?

XXXIII.—(1.) What do the two houses compose? (2.) What are they supposed to represent?

XXXIV.—(1.) What authority is exercised by Parliament? (2.) What is necessary to make a law? (3.) Where must propositions to raise money originate? (4.) What does this insure?

XXXV.—(1.) What does the House of Commons elect? (2.) What is said of the speaker?

the lower house and the sovereign pass through this officer, and it is his duty to preserve order during the deliberations of members.

XXXVI.—(1.) Propositions submitted for action in Parliament pass through regular forms of discussion and examination. (2.) They are presented in writing and referred to some committee. (3.) They are then read and considered three times before being finally passed upon. (4.) If not rejected before the final vote is taken, a majority of all the members of parliament are required to vote upon their final passage.

XXXVII.—(1.) A proposition of any measure is called a bill, and after the passage of a bill, it is known as an act of parliament. (2.) Every bill must go through the same process of consideration and voting, in both houses of parliament, before it is presented to the sovereign. (3.) When sanctioned and signed by the sovereign, it becomes a law of the land.

XXXVIII.—(1.) Either house may reject a bill passed by the other, or return it with alterations or amendments. (2.) If that branch of the legislature in which the bill originated agrees to the alterations made, it becomes an act, but if otherwise, it is rejected.

XXXIX.—(1.) The sovereign of Great Britain is the executive power, or administration. (2.) The dignity of king or queen is hereditary in the family of Brunswick. (3.) All government business is supervised, treaties made, taxes called for, war declared, and the laws of the country enforced, through officials supervised by monarch and council.

XL.—(1.) Agents acting under government are appointed by

XXXVI.—(1.) What is said of propositions in parliament? (2.) What is the first action taken on them? (3.) How are they proceeded with? (4.) What is requisite for their determination?

XXXVII.—(1.) What is said concerning a bill? (2.) Through what process must every bill go? (3.) When does a bill become a law?

XXXVIII.—(1.) What may either house do to a bill? (2.) What is necessary after alterations are made in a bill?

XXXIX.—(1.) What is the sovereign of Great Britain? (2.) In what family is the dignity hereditary? (3.) What is said of public affairs?

XL.—(1.) How are appointments made?

the sovereign, through the ministers. (2.) Judges, military and civil officers, ambassadors, consuls, tax-collectors, and others required for public service, receive their authority from the crown. (3.) The sovereign controls the army and colonial governments, through the great officers of state, who form the ministry.

XXI.—(1.) The British ministry, or cabinet, is selected by the sovereign, and dismissed at pleasure. (2.) Each cabinet minister is at the head of some important branch of the administration. (3.) Cabinet ministers are generally appointed from the leading men of the nation, and authorized to explain and defend the action of the administration before parliament.

XXII.—(1.) The chief cabinet officer is the *Premier*, or prime minister. (2.) He is called *First Lord of the Treasury*, and oversees the expenditures and receipts of public money. (3.) He is the principal officer of state, under the sovereign.

XXIII.—(1.) The next cabinet minister is called *Lord High Chancellor*. (2.) He is the chief judge of the kingdom, and presides in the House of Lords. (3.) He is the principal law adviser of the sovereign and cabinet.

XXIV.—(1.) Five secretaries of State come next in the royal ministry. (2.) One has charge of affairs in the English kingdom, and is called the Home Secretary. (3.) Another is Secretary of Foreign Affairs. (4.) A third is the Colonial Secretary, having superintendence of British colonies in all parts of the world. (5.) A fourth is the Secretary of War; and a fifth is Secretary of Ireland, having care of that island. (6.) A Chancellor of the Exchequer,

(2.) Whence does civil and military authority proceed? (3.) How are subordinate departments controlled?

XXI.—(1.) How is the cabinet appointed? (2.) What is the position of a cabinet minister? (3.) What is said of cabinet ministers?

XXII.—(1.) What is the *Premier*? (2.) What title and authority has he? (3.) What is his position in the government?

XXIII.—(1.) What is the next cabinet minister called? (2.) What is his position? (3.) What relation does he hold to the sovereign?

XXIV.—(1.) What officials come next in the ministry? (2.) What is one of these secretaries? (3.) What is another? (4.) What is the third? (5.) What are the fourth and fifth? (6.) What other officers are there?

First Lord of the Admiralty, and other high officers, make up the number of twelve cabinet ministers.

XLV.—(1.) The ministers are considered to be responsible for all errors of government. (2.) They may be tried by parliament, on impeachment, for any serious charge. (3.) The sovereign is never supposed to be wrong, but all accountability for bad government rests upon the ministry, or cabinet.

XLVI.—(1.) The sovereign may choose a private council for advisers, besides the cabinet. (2.) The privy council have no share in the government, unless appointed to act in some department by the sovereign. (3.) When so appointed, they become responsible for their own conduct of affairs.

XLVII.—(1.) The sovereign of Great Britain is regarded as head of the state religion, or Episcopal Church of England. (2.) He or she nominates all the bishops belonging to that church, and appoints many of the inferior clergy.

XLVIII.—(1.) The civil laws of England are classified under two heads. (2.) All laws established by acts of parliament form one class, called Written, or Statute Law. (3.) The other class comprises ancient customs, or judicial decisions, and is known as Common Law.

XLIX.—(1.) Scotland and Ireland, now united with England under government of one sovereign, were formerly separate states. (2.) The magistracy and common law of Scotland differ in some

XLV.—(1.) What responsibility have the ministers? (2.) How may they be proceeded against? (3.) What responsibility has the sovereign?

XLVI.—(1.) What other body of officials may be appointed by the sovereign? (2.) What is said of the privy council? (3.) When do they become responsible?

XLVII.—(1.) What religious, or hierarchal, position does the British sovereign hold? (2.) What power has he in the hierarchy?

XLVIII.—(1.) How are civil laws classified? (2.) What laws form one class? (3.) What does the other class comprise?

XLIX.—(1.) What is said of Scotland and Ireland? (2.) What laws and magistrates differ?

respects from those of England. (3.) The three countries, and all British possessions, are subject to parliamentary legislation and authority of the crown, through its officers

CHAPTER XI.

THE SPANISH MONARCHY.

I.—(1.) THE Spanish people are descendants of several mixed races, who possessed the territory in former times. (2.) They are governed by hereditary monarchs, under a written constitution. (3.) The supreme legislative body is called the *Cortes*. (4.) It consists of two houses, higher and lower, called the Senate and House of Deputies.

II.—(1.) The senate is an aristocratic council, consisting of members appointed for life by the monarch. (2.) It is generally composed of the hereditary nobility, or *grandees*, of the kingdom. (3.) The house of deputies is elective, the members being named by electoral colleges chosen from the people. (4.) One deputy is allowed to fifty thousand inhabitants.

III.—(1.) Each deputy is chosen for a term of five years. (2.) The consent of the house of deputies, the monarch, and the senate, is required for the passage of all laws. (3.) Measures for the raising of money must originate in the house of deputies.

IV.—(1.) The house of deputies may be dissolved at any time by the monarch, provided another is called to assemble within three

(3.) What laws are common to the three countries?

I.—(1.) What are the Spanish people? (2.) How are they governed? (3.) What is the *Cortes*? (4.) How is the body composed?

II.—(1.) What is the senate? (2.) How is it composed? (3.) What is the house of deputies? (4.) What is the proportion of deputies?

III.—(1.) How long is a deputy's term of office? (2.) What is requisite for the passage of laws? (3.) What is said of money measures?

IV.—(1.) What may be done by the monarch?

months afterward. (2.) The senate is not limited in number, but comprises all *grandees*, who are members by right of birth, and all persons named by the king.

V.—(1.) The sovereign of Spain is only responsible through the council. (2.) The royal council is composed of six secretaries, presiding over the several departments of state—of war, of finance, of justice, of marine, and of subordinate governments.

VI.—(1.) The Spanish judiciary consists of a supreme court and fifteen royal courts, in as many territorial departments. (2.) The supreme court has a president and fifteen judges. (3.) These are divided into three committees, or halls of justice, called first and second courts, and court of the Indies. (4.) The last has jurisdiction in colonial matters. (5.) Below these are the fifteen courts, called *Audiencias*. (6.) The state religion is Roman Catholic, with a hierarchy of ten archbishops and fifty-nine bishops.

CHAPTER XII.

THE PORTUGUESE MONARCHY.

I.—(1.) The Portuguese are descended from tribes of Vandals and Goths, who successively invaded Europe, and settled at its southwestern extremity. (2.) During the middle ages, the people were ruled by kings more or less despotic.

II.—(1.) Portugal is a hereditary monarchy, governed accord-

(2.) What does the senate comprise?

V.—(1.) What is the sovereign's responsibility? (2.) How is the royal council composed?

VI.—(1.) Of what does the Spanish judiciary consist? (2.) How is the supreme court composed? (3.) How are the judges divided? (4.) What is said of the court of the Indies? (5.) What are below the halls of justice? (6.) What hierarchal organization is there in Spain?

I.—(1.) From what tribes are the Portuguese descended? (2.) How were the people ruled during the middle ages?

II.—(1.) What is the government of Portugal?

ing to a written constitution. (2.) There is a legislature, composed of an upper and lower house, the members being elected. (3.) They have regular sessions, and constitute the supreme legislative power of the kingdom.

III.—(1.) The Portuguese monarch is commander of the military forces, appoints governors, and signs all laws. (2.) He has no *veto* power to prevent the passage of legislative measures. (3.) The state is divided politically into eight provinces, comprising seventeen districts.

IV.—(1.) In each district there is a judicial tribunal, acting as the highest court. (2.) Under these tribunals a great number of magistrates are appointed, as primary courts. (3.) A superior court, with extensive jurisdiction, and a supreme national court, constitute the chief judiciary.

V.—(1.) Education in Portugal is in a low condition, and mainly controlled by the clergy. (2.) The established religion is Roman Catholic, with a hierarchal organization. (3.) A patriarch, two archbishops, and fourteen bishops, exercise jurisdiction over ecclesiastical concerns.

(2.) What is the legislature? (3.) What is said of these houses?

III.—(1.) What authority has the monarch? (2.) How is his authority limited? (3.) What are political divisions of the state?

IV.—(1.) What is said of the judiciary? (2.) What of magistrates? (3.) What constitute the chief judiciary?

V.—(1.) What is said of education in Portugal? (2.) What of religion? (3.) How is the hierarchy organized?

CHAPTER XIII.

THE BRAZILIAN EMPIRE.

I.—(1.) THE Brazilian empire is the only independent monarchy on the American continent. (2.) The state was founded by Portuguese colonists, and was governed at first as a province of Portugal. (3.) It was erected into a vice-kingdom, attached to the Portuguese crown, and afterward became an independent state

II.—(1.) The form of government in Brazil is that of a hereditary monarchy. (2.) There is a written constitution and a representative parliament consisting of a Senate and Chamber of Deputies. (3.) Senators are appointed by the emperor, and deputies elected by the people.

III.—(1.) There are nineteen provinces in the empire, each of which has a legislative assembly, chosen by the people, once in two years. (2.) These bodies possess the power of legislating for the people of their respective provinces. (3.) They have the privilege of establishing local measures, and appointing officers of a province nominated by the king. (4.) The national legislature has authority over all the others for purposes of peace and war.

IV.—(1.) Members of the Brazilian national senate hold office for life. (2.) Members of the national chamber of deputies are chosen to serve four years. (3.) The privilege of voting is allowed to all free citizens, with certain restrictions in different provinces.

I.—(1.) What is said of the Brazilian empire? (2.) How was the state founded? (3.) What changes has it undergone?

II.—(1.) What is the Brazilian form of government? (2.) How is the royal authority limited? (3.) How is the legislature formed?

III.—(1.) How is the empire politically divided? (2.) What authority have the provincial legislature? (3.) What privileges do they possess? (4.) What jurisdiction has the national legislature?

IV.—(1.) How long do senators hold office? (2.) How long is a deputy's term? (3.) What persons have the privilege of voting?

(4.) The population is divided into Europeans, white Brazilians, Indians, negroes, and mixed races. (5.) Slavery of colored persons is recognized by law, but there are no distinctions between free citizens on account of color.

CHAPTER XIV.

THE GOVERNMENT OF THE FRENCH.

I.—(1.) AFTER the division of Charlemagne's Frankish empire, the territory that remained under his successors was known as France. (2.) The government remained an absolute monarchy, modified only by parliaments called by the king on important occasions.

II.—(1.) During the middle ages, the French government, like all other administration of power in Europe, was influenced by the feudal system. (2.) The king's authority was often contested by combinations of his great vassals.

III.—(1.) When the commons, or body of the people, became of importance, the king relied upon them to sustain his government. (2.) The people were heavily taxed by princes and nobility, as well as by the government.

IV.—(1.) The political organization of France was violently changed about the close of the eighteenth century. (2.) The people rose in revolution, and framed a democratic constitution.

(4.) How is the population divided? (5.) What is said of colored persons?

I.—(1.) What is said of France? (2.) What of its government after Charlemagne?

II.—(1.) What was French government during the middle ages? (2.) How was the king's authority contested?

III.—(1.) What is said of the commons? (2.) What grievances did the people suffer?

IV.—(1.) When was French government violently changed? (2.) What did the people do?

(3.) This form of government was succeeded by the military empire of Napoleon Bonaparte.

V.—(1.) After the fall of Bonaparte, a member of the former royal family resumed the throne. (2.) An aristocratic assembly, elected, by property holders, and a senate of nobility, appointed by the king, formed the legislative power. (3.) This government was changed by another revolution, and a new king was elected by the people.

VI.—(1.) In the year 1848, a third revolution took place in France, and the government was changed to a republican form. (2.) A chief magistrate, named President, was chosen for a term of four years. (3.) A legislative body, called the National Assembly, was elected by votes of all the people of France.

VII.—(2.) Louis Napoleon Bonaparte was elected President of the Republic, and, shortly afterward, made himself dictator by military force. (2.) He caused the republic to be changed to a monarchy, and himself to be made hereditary emperor.

VIII.—(1.) The political constitution of France was then based on the military power and influence of Louis Napoleon. (2.) The emperor appointed all ministers, members of the council of state, and members of the senate. (3.) Legislative power subsisted in the emperor, the senate, and a national assembly chosen by the people.

IX.—(1.) Senators were named by the emperor, to serve during life. (2.) He likewise had the power to grant to them \$6,000 a year, as compensation. (3.) Their number was fixed by the constitution at one hundred and fifty.

(3.) What succeeded the first democracy ?

V.—(1.) What took place after Bonaparte ? (2.) What then formed the legislature ? (3.) What occurred to this government ?

VI.—(1.) What took place in the year 1848 ? (2.) What ruler was chosen ? (3.) How was the legislature appointed ?

VII.—(1.) What is said of Louis Napoleon ? (2.) What course did he pursue ?

VIII.—On what was the government then based ? (2.) What did the emperor appoint ? (3.) Where was legislative power placed ?

IX.—(1.) What is said of senators ? (2.) How were they influenced by the emperor ? (3.) State the number of senators.

X.—(1.) The national legislature comprised a body of two hundred and sixty-one members. (2.) The members of this body represented municipalities and rural districts throughout France. (3.) One representative was given to thirty-five thousand voters. (4.) These representatives, entitled deputies, were each chosen to serve six years.

XI.—(1.) The power to frame all laws and propose public measures was reposed in the senate. (2.) The lower or representative branch of the legislature, could only do business previously sanctioned by the senate

XII.—(1.) The discussions of the senate were held with closed doors. (2.) The meetings of the other legislative branch were held in secret, whenever any five members desired them to be so.

XIII.—(1.) The emperor kept officers to supervise all newspapers and other publications. (2.) Nothing was allowed to be printed unless sanctioned by the imperial government. (3.) A rigid police system extended over all parts of France. (4.) A large standing army was enlisted at the expense of the tax payers, to support imperial government.

XIV.—(1.) French territory is comprised in governmental departments. (2.) Departments are sub-divided into arrondissements, arrondissements into cantons, and cantons into communes.

XV.—(1.) A department embraces one, or part of one, of more ancient divisions called dukedoms and counties. (2.) An

X.—(1.) What was a national legislature? (2.) What did its members represent? (3.) State the proportion of representatives to voters? (4.) What is said of those representatives?

XI.—(1.) What authority was enjoyed by the senate? (2.) How was the representative branch restricted?

XII.—(1.) What is said of senatorial discussions? (2.) What of the meetings of representatives?

XIII.—Was freedom of the press restricted in France? What about matters to be printed? (3.) What is said of the police? (4.) What of an army?

XIV.—(1.) How is France divided? What subdivisions are made?

XV.—(1.) What does a department embrace? (2.) What is an arrondissement?

arrondissement is a district comprising several towns and villages. (3.) A canton is a township, or city, with its neighborhoods. (4.) A commune is a ward or parish, containing a certain number of inhabitants, more or less.

XVI.—(1.) The lowest tribunals in France are the courts of communes. (2.) Each commune has a justice of the peace, who acts as a referee, or umpire, between disputants. (3.) If a cause is not settled before this tribunal, it may be carried to the arrondissement court, to a commercial court, or to a court of referees.

XVII.—(1.) Over these inferior tribunals are twenty-seven imperial courts, each having jurisdiction over several departments. (2.) These courts are ranged in three classes, two of them having five chambers, nine having four chambers, and sixteen having three chambers each. (3.) These imperial courts are held in a chief town of the district over which they claim jurisdiction.

XVIII.—(1.) The supreme judicial tribunal of France is called the Court of Cassation, or repeal. (2.) The sessions of this court are held at Paris, the imperial capital. (3.) It has power to review and annul all decisions made by inferior courts.

XIX.—(1.) Educational matters in France are under supervision of government. (2.) The emperor appoints a Minister of Public Instruction, who has charge of educational and religious institutions. (3.) The educational institutions are ranged under three heads, called academies, secondary schools, and primary schools.

XX.—(1.) The University of Paris stands at the head of the academies. (2.) The minister of public instruction is its chief

ment? (3.) What is a canton? (4.) What is a commune?

XVI.—(1.) What are the lowest French tribunals? (2.) What does each commune have? (3.) What may be done with causes not settled in commune courts?

XVII.—(1.) What are over the lower tribunals? (2.) How are these courts ranged? (3.) Where are the imperial courts held?

XVIII.—(1.) What is the highest judicial tribunal? (2.) Where is it located? (3.) What power has the Court of Cassation?

XIX.—(1.) What is said of education in France? (2.) What chief educational officer is appointed? (3.) How are educational institutions ranged?

XX.—(1.) What is at the head of the academies? (2.) How is it directed?

functionary, assisted by a council of thirty persons. (3.) Under the University are twenty-seven principal academies, in as many educational districts. (4.) Under each academy, are the secondary and primary schools of the district.

XXI.—(1.) After the second empire had lasted twenty years, Louis Napoleon was dethroned. (2.) Foreign and civil war was followed by another republican government. (3.) France is now ruled by a president elected for life, a senate, and an assembly of elected delegates.

XXII.—(1.) The French people have sought, by several revolutions, to establish a popular form of government. (2.) They have encountered, in each attempt, the evil of ambition, in unscrupulous leaders. (3.) The danger of a large army, controlled by government, has been made manifest through all French history.

XXIII.—(1.) The French people are still maintaining large armies to sustain government. (2.) A regular military organization is supported by the republic, and is a means of subsisting large bodies of men in idleness, and accustoming the officers to exercise arbitrary authority. (3.) When paid soldiers are made dependent upon a central power, they stand ready to strengthen it, for their own interest.

XXIV.—(1.) The only large military force not dangerous in a republic is that of a militia of citizens. (2.) A well-organized militia is as powerful to defend any country as a standing army

(3.) What are under the University? (4.) What are under the academies?

XXI.—(1.) What befell Louis Napoleon? (2.) What followed? (3.) What is the government of France at present?

XXII.—(1.) What have the French people sought? (2.) Why have they failed? (3.) What evil has been shown thereby?

XXIII.—(1.) How have the French people been kept in subjection? (2.) What is the regular military organization? (3.) What is the effect of such an organization?

XXIV.—(1.) What military force is not dangerous? (2.) What is the

would be. (3.) A militia is sustained by the patriotism of each citizen, whilst a standing army is kept together only by wages and discipline.

CHAPTER XV.

CONSTITUTIONAL KINGDOM OF BELGIUM.

I.—(1.) THE Belgians derive their origin from German and French ancestors. (2.) Their country has formed, at different periods, portions of France and of Germany. (3.) The state of Belgium is now a constitutional monarchy, with republican legislative assemblies.

II.—(1.) The office of king is hereditary through male branches of the reigning family. (2.) The legislature is composed of a senate and house of representatives, elected by registered voters of all classes.

III.—(1.) Belgium is divided into nine provinces, each with a governor and council, and superior court. (2.) The provinces are subdivided into arrondissements, cantons, and communes, as in France. (3.) Each arrondissement has an inferior court, and each canton a tribunal of police. (4.) There are high courts of appeal in the cities of Brussels, Ghent, and Liege, but supreme judicial power is vested in a court of cassation at the first-mentioned capital city.

IV.—(1.) The educational institutions of Belgium consist of four

benefit of a good militia? (3.) What important difference is there between a militia and a standing army.

I.—(1.) What is said of the Belgians? (2.) What of their country? (3.) What is the state now?

II.—(1.) What is the office of king? (2.) How is the legislature composed?

III.—(1.) How is Belgium politically divided? (2.) How are the provinces subdivided? (3.) What has each arrondissement? (4.) What other judicial organization is mentioned?

IV.—(1) What is said of education in Belgium?

universities, high schools, called *gymnasia*, in most of the cities, and primary schools in the communes. (2.) Clergy of all sects are assisted by the state in their religious teachings. (3.) The government of Belgium is tolerant, and the citizens are protected in their rights. (4.) The state is prosperous, and its individuals generally contented.



CHAPTER XVI.

KINGDOM OF THE NETHERLANDS.

I.—(1.) The Dutch, or Holland nation, was originally comprised in a barbarous people who lived on the borders of ancient Gaul. (2.) They were known as Belgians, and their chief tribes were called *Batavians*. (3.) They afterward became subjects of Charlemagne and his successors, under governors called dukes and counts.

II.—(1.) The Duke of Burgundy was ruler of Holland, Belgium, and adjoining districts known as the Low Countries. (2.) These fell under the dominion of Spain, and afterwards became an independent republic under a chief magistrate called the stadtholder, and an aristocratic council, or States-General. (3.) Holland is now known as Netherlands, and forms a constitutional state, governed by a hereditary king.

III.—(1.) The legislature of the Netherlands consists of the king and two chambers, called States-General. (2.) The upper chamber numbers twenty-three and the lower fifty-five mem-

(2.) What of the clergy? (3.) What of the government and citizens? (4.) What of the State?

I.—(1.) What were the original Dutch? (2.) What is said of their names? (3.) What did they subsequently become?

II.—(1.) What was the Duke of Burgundy? (2.) What afterward took place? (3.) What is Holland now?

III.—(1.) Of what does the Netherlands legislature consist? (2.) What do

bers. (3.) This body assembles at the royal capital, which is called the Hague.

IV.—(1.) Members of the upper chamber of the States-General hold office for life, under appointment of the king. (2.) Members of the lower chamber are elected by the states, or united provinces. (3.) These united provinces are ten in number.

V.—(1.) The kingdom of the Netherlands also comprises the German provinces of Limburg and Luxemburg. (2.) This allows it a voice in the German Confederation. (3.) It also possesses many colonies in Asia, Africa and America, governed by officers appointed by the States-General.

VI.—(1.) Education is universally diffused throughout the united provinces of the Netherlands. (2.) The people are industrious, frugal, and enterprising. (3.) Their rights are protected, and they are generally prosperous and contented.

the chambers number respectively? (3.) Where do the States-General assemble?

IV.—(1.) What is said of the upper chamber? (2.) What of the lower chamber? (3.) How many provinces are there?

V.—(1.) What German provinces does the kingdom comprise? (2.) To what does this entitle it? (3.) What other dependencies has the kingdom?

VI.—(1.) What is said of education in Holland? (2.) What of the people? (3.) What is their condition?

CONFEDERATED STATES OF EUROPE.

CHAPTER I.

THE GERMAN CONFEDERATION.

I.—(1.) The Holy Roman Empire of Germany continued, during many centuries, to be governed by monarchs elected by the chiefs of all German states. (2.) About the close of the eighteenth century the present empire of Austria took its place. (3.) The territory now known as Germany was divided into thirty-eight sovereignties, large and small. Austria and Prussia were the leading German powers.

II.—(2.) Some of the German communities were constitutional monarchies, and some absolute, others were more popular in form. (2.) The heads or representatives of the various states met, at stated periods, in a national council called the German Diet. (3.) This combination, for political purposes, was called the German Confederation. (4.) Its object was assumed to be for a mutual defense of all the states, and the maintenance of each in peace and independence.

I.—(1.) What is said of the Holy Roman Empire? (2.) What took its place? (3.) How was German territory then divided? (4.) What was the leading German power?

II.—(1.) What is said of German monarchies? (2.) What of the representatives of the different states? (3.) What was the combination called? (4.) What were the assumed objects of this confederation?

III.—(1.) The Diet, or assembly of representatives from all the states, meets, from time to time, at a city called Frankfort-on-the-Maine. (2.) The representative of Austria presides over the sessions, because Austria is acknowledged to be the most powerful German government.

IV.—(1.) The German Diet acts as a general assembly, each state having a certain number of votes on every question. (2.) The larger powers have more votes or representatives than the smaller, and there are sixty-nine votes in all. (3.) Most of the business of the Diet is transacted by a select committee, in which only seventeen votes are cast. (4.) In this committee the large states have each one vote, and the smaller states have only one vote allowed to several of them combined. (5.) Eleven large states cast one vote each, and twenty-seven small ones divide the remaining six votes between their delegations.

V.—(1.) The committee examine all matters before they are submitted to the General Assembly, or Diet. (2.) The committee propose such measures as they desire shall be acted upon, and a vote of two-thirds of the General Assembly decides for or against them. (3.) Questions involving war, or making peace, are acted upon by the Diet. (4.) This prevents one German power from levying war without consultation of others. (5.) When money and soldiers are to be raised, the Diet fixes the proportion that each state must contribute.

VI.—(1.) In the German Diet, the representatives of Austria, Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, Hanover, and Wurtemberg, have each four votes. (2.) These six kingdoms together cast twenty-four

III.—(1.) Where does the Diet meet? (2.) What state presides?

IV.—(1.) How does the Diet act? (2.) How are the votes of states divided? (3.) What is said of a select committee? (4.) How are votes cast in this committee? (5.) What proportion have the large states?

V.—(1.) What is the business of the select committee? (2.) How are measures acted upon? (3.) What questions are acted upon by the Diet? (4.) What does this prevent? (5.) What other matters does the Diet arrange?

VI.—(1.) What German powers have four votes each in the Diet? (2.) How

votes. (3.) The representatives of Baden, Hesse-Cassel, Hesse-Darmstadt, Holstein and Lauenburg, and Luxemburg and Limburg, each cast three votes, making fifteen votes. (4.) These fifteen, with the twenty-four preceding, amount to thirty-nine, or more than half the number of votes in the whole assembly.

VII.—(1.) Of the remaining votes, Brunswick, Mecklenburg-Schwerin, and Nassau, have two each. (2.) The other small states, twenty-four in number, have each a single vote. (3.) Four of them are free cities, called Lubeck, Hamburg, Frankfort, and Bremen.

VIII.—(1.) In meetings of the minor Diet, or Select Committee, the first eleven states have each one vote. (2.) The twelfth vote is allowed to four small states, the thirteenth to two, the fourteenth to two also, the fifteenth to seven, the sixteenth to eight, and the seventeenth to the four free cities.



CHAPTER II.

THE SWISS CONFEDERATION.

I.—(1.) THE Alpine country, now known as Switzerland, was anciently called Helvetia. (2.) It was inhabited successively by Goths, Lombards, Burgundians, Alemanni, and other barbarous tribes. (3.) It became a province of the Holy Roman Empire, attached to the dominions of Oest-reich, or Austria. (4.) It was then divided into a number of cantons, each containing many villages and small towns, generally ruled by bishops, abbots, or nobles,

many votes do these kingdoms cast? (3.) What states have three votes each? (4.) What proportional votes are possessed by the eleven states mentioned?

VII.—(1.) What states have two votes each in the Diet? (2.) What votes have the remaining twenty-four states? (3.) What are the names of the free cities?

VIII.—(1.) What is said of votes in the Select Committee? (2.) What is the proportion allowed to other states?

I.—(1.) What was Switzerland anciently called? (2.) By whom was it inhabited? (3.) What did it become? (4.) How was it divided?

who lived in neighboring convents and castles. (5.) Each community possessed certain privileges guaranteed by the emperor as a reward for their payment of taxes.

II.—(1.) The counts of Hapsburg, sovereigns of Austria, claimed exclusive jurisdiction over Helvetic territory. (2.) They placed oppressive governors over various districts, until the people revolted and formed a confederation of three districts, called the cantons of Schwitz, Uri, and Unterwalden. (3.) The name of the first canton became afterward a designation for all the country of Helvetia.

III.—(1.) The three united cantons were afterward joined by five more, called Lucerne, Zurich, Glaris, Zug, and Berne. (2.) They formed the Swiss Confederation, which guaranteed to each canton an independent local administration. (3.) The form of government in some cantons was aristocratic, in others democratic. (4.) At a later period, the Swiss Confederation composed thirteen cantons.

IV.—(1.) The terms of confederation between Helvetic cantons comprised an agreement to preserve peace and unanimity among themselves, and a guaranty of perfect security to every individual. (2.) They provided for protection of all traders, and for personal service of every citizen in seasons of common danger. (3.) Strict regulations were made concerning the conduct of Switzers in battle. (4.) No one was allowed to leave the field, or take any spoil, without permission of his commander. (5.) All plunder was placed in the commander's hands, to be distributed to cantons according to the number of men furnished by each. (6.) Switzers were forbidden to burn or rob churches, or molest women, except under extraordinary circumstances.

(5.) What did each community possess?

II.—(1.) Who claimed jurisdiction over the country? (2.) What resulted

(3.) What canton gave name to the country?

III.—(1.) How was the first combination strengthened? (2.) What did the union form? (3.) What is said of different governments? (4.) How many cantons were afterward combined?

IV.—(1.) What did the terms of confederation comprise? (2.) For what did they provide? (3.) What regulations were made? (4.) What was not allowed? (5.) What was done with plunder? (6.) What was forbidden?

V.--(1.) The Swiss cantons are now twenty-two in number, constituted as a federal republic. (2.) The national assembly consists of two bodies, one called a National Council, and the other a Senate, or Council of States. (3.) The national council is composed of persons named by the people of cantons as their representatives, one representative being allowed to each ten thousand inhabitants of a canton. (4.) These representatives are chosen for a term of three years each. (5.) The senate consists of forty-four members, two for each canton.

VI.—(1.) The administration of national affairs is intrusted to a body called the Federal Council, composed of seven members. (2.) These are chosen by the national council from qualified Swiss citizens, and their term of office is three years. (3.) The senate and national council possess the right to make war or peace, and transact business with foreign powers.

VII.—(1.) The Swiss judiciary consists of a court called the Federal Tribunal, of eleven members and eleven substitutes. (2.) It is named by the federal assembly for a term of three years, and decides questions between different cantons, cantons and the confederation, or cantons and individuals. (3.) It is divided into sections, constituting a chamber of accusation, a jury, and a court of errors, or appeals.

VIII.—(1.) Education is universal throughout Switzerland. (2.) A system of primary schools is sustained, and three important colleges are located at Basle, Berne, and Zurich. (3.) The Swiss population is organized for common defence, as a militia, and each canton is bound to contribute a certain number of soldiers in time of danger.

V.—(1.) How many cantons constitute the Swiss republic? (2.) Of what does the national assembly consist? (3.) How is the national council composed? (4.) How long do representatives hold office? (5.) Of what does the Swiss senate consist?

VI.—(1) What is the administration? (2) Who compose this council? (3.) What power is held by senate and national council?

VII.—(1.) What is the Swiss judiciary? (2.) What is said of this court? (3.) How is it divided?

VIII.—(1.) What is said concerning education? (2.) What institutions are there? (3.) How is the Swiss population organized?

CHAPTER III.

ITALIAN REPUBLICS.

I.—(1.) AFTER the downfall of Roman power in western Europe, the territories of Italy were governed as a kingdom, by a barbarian nation called Lombards. (2.) The Lombards were subjugated by Charlemagne, and after his death the country was divided into several districts, each governed by an independent military chief.

II.—(1.) During the middle ages, Italy comprised several small states, some republican, despotic, and hierarchic in forms of government. (3.) Most of these states had been important cities of the Roman commonwealth and empire.

III.—(1.) Under Roman dominion, the Italian cities resembled the capital, Rome, in many particulars. (2.) Their population was divided into classes of nobles, artisans, merchants, freedmen, and slaves. (3.) Their political organization was generally of a republican form, composed of a town senate, chosen by the people, and two annual magistrates, called consuls. (4.) They had ediles, quæstors, and other officers, in imitation of the capital city.

IV.—(1.) The superior class in Italian cities consisted of persons who owned neighboring lands, cultivated as farms and vineyards. (2.) The lands were worked by slaves bought from barbarians, or by tenants called *colons*, or peasants, who received a small share of the harvest as wages. (3.) The actual cultivators of land had no

I.—(1.) What is said of Italian territories? (2.) What afterward took place?

II.—(1.) What did Italy comprise during the middle ages? (2.) What is said of these?

III.—(1.) What did Italian cities resemble? (2.) How was their population divided? (3.) What was their political organization? (4.) What officers did they have?

IV.—(1.) What constituted a superior class? (2.) Who were land cultivators? (3.) What is said of these?

ownership, and no interest in it, except to earn a pittance by labors, for the proprietor.

V.—(1.) Sometimes the proprietors of land resided at Rome, and their large estates were intrusted to overseers, who lived in the Italian cities. (2.) The overseers only thought of raising as much revenue as possible from their employers' lands, at the least expense for labor. (3.) Under these agents, agricultural tenants were as much oppressed as were the slaves.

VI.—(1.) After the western empire of Rome fell before the Goths, a few Italian cities remained governed by lieutenants of the eastern emperor at Constantinople. (2.) The title of these lieutenants was *Exarch*, and they collected a tribute from the cities under them. (3.) Other Italian cities of Greek origin, such as Naples, Gaeta, and Amalfi, survived the fall of Rome, as independent municipalities.

VII.—(1.) When Lombard barbarians took possession of Italy, they divided the territory among their chiefs. (2.) Under their jurisdiction the country was separated into thirty dukedoms or marquisates. (3.) The Lombards were conquered in their turn by the Franks, under Charlemagne.

VIII.—(1.) The city of Rome was, for many centuries before Charlemagne, a dukedom, governed by a lieutenant of the eastern emperor at Constantinople. (2.) During three centuries, the bishop of Rome, called Pope, was elected by the clergy, the senate, and the people of the diocese or district. (3.) When Charlemagne subdued the Lombards, he was crowned at Rome as restorer of the western Roman empire. (4.) The eastern emperors then ceased to exercise any authority in Rome.

V.—(1.) What is said of overseers? (2.) What motives influenced overseers? (3.) What was the consequence?

VI.—(1.) What is said of a few cities? (2.) What of the lieutenants? (3.) What was the condition of other cities?

VII.—(1.) What did the Lombards do? (2.) How was the country separated? (3.) What became of the Lombards?

VIII.—(1.) What is said of Rome? (2.) How was its bishop elected? (3.) What is said of Charlemagne? (4.) What of the eastern emperors?

IX.—(1.) After Charlemagne's death, his Italian provinces passed from Frankish to German control. (2.) Italy then became part of the Holy Roman Empire, and its cities paid an annual tribute to the German monarchs. (3.) Italian districts and states remained separate and independent of each other. (4.) Most of the cities were rebuilt and surrounded by walls. (5.) Each had its own form of municipal government. (6.) Some cities or districts continued to acknowledge dukes, marquises, or counts, as under the Lombards. (7.) Others elected senates and magistrates, after the ancient democratic form. (8.) Others were under jurisdiction of abbots or bishops.

X.—(1.) The German emperor visited Italy once in five or seven years, at the head of his army. (2.) He encamped on a great plain called Roncaglia, near the city of Placentia. (3.) Here he summoned before him the dukes, marquises, counts, and magistrates, who represented various Italian states and cities. (4.) They assembled in his camp, the emperor presiding over their deliberations. (5.) They delivered to him the tribute or taxes due from different districts, and he agreed to such laws as he thought proper for the jurisdiction of the country. (6.) After remaining some months, the emperor marched his army back to Germany. (7.) The nobles dispersed to their castles, the magistrates and bishops to their cities, and the country remained as usual, till another imperial visit.

XI.—(1.) Charlemagne and his successors granted to citizens of towns the right of building fortifications, and of assembling in town meeting at the sound of a great bell. (2.) Each city raised a force of militia, commanded by chosen magistrates or leaders. (3.)

IX.—(1.) What occurred after Charlemagne's death? (2.) What did Italy become? (3.) What is said of different states? (4.) What of the cities? (5.) What did each have? (6.) What did some continue to do? (7.) What government did others adopt? (8.) What local authority did others recognize?

X.—(1.) What is said of the German emperor? (2.) Where did he encamp? (3.) What did he summon to his presence? (4.) What did these representatives do? (5.) What was then done? (6.) What occurred afterward? (7.) What did the Italian authorities then do?

XI.—(1.) What grants were made by Charlemagne and his successors? (2.) What did each city raise? (3.) What partisan divisions took place?

When the popes of Rome assumed authority over Italy, and the German emperors opposed their claims, the Italian cities took sides upon the question. (4.) Some declared in favor of the pope and some of the emperor, and in this quarrel waged war against each other as independent states.

XII.—(1.) The meeting of citizens at the sound of a bell was called a parliament. (2.) Citizens assembled in the market-place, or great square of a city, and elected two magistrates every year. (3.) One was intrusted with the administration of justice, and the other was deputed to command the militia. (4.) The militia of each city consisted of several bodies, from parishes or classes of the people. (5.) Each division was led by a *gonfaloniere*, or standard bearer.

XIII.—(1.) The two chief magistrates of a city usually retained the ancient title of consuls. (2.) There was a secret council, or *consilio*, chosen for each city, composed of a few members selected from each division of the citizens. (3.) There was also a legislative council, consisting of a limited number of citizens, who prepared measures to be acted upon by the assembled people. (4.) The secret *consilio* had charge of finance, and the levying and collecting of taxes or contributions, for government expenses. (5.) The city magistrates consisted of consuls and counsellors, and were called *signoria*.

XIV.—(1.) Whilst cities were organized by the people in this manner, strong castles were built by the nobility wherever they owned land. (2.) The most powerful of the aristocracy erected their strongholds on high mountains, almost inaccessible to attack. (3.) Less important lords raised towers and castles on the plains,

(4.) What was the consequence?

XII.—(1.) What was an Italian parliament? (2.) What did citizens do? (3.) What authority had the magistrates? (4.) Of what did the militia consist? (5.) What is said of a *gonfaloniere*?

XIII.—(1.) What title had the chief magistrates? (2.) What council was created? (3.) What other council was constituted? (4.) Of what did the *consilio* have charge? (5.) What were the *signoria*?

XIV.—(1.) What is said of castles? (2.) Where did the most powerful nobles build castles? (3.) Where did minor nobles erect them?

in vicinity of cities. (4.) The mountain nobles preserved an independent and arrogant authority over districts which submitted to them. (5.) Those who dwelt in the plain country enrolled themselves as citizens of some republic, and became the aristocracy of Italian cities. (6.) Consuls, *gonfalonieres* and other magistrates, or leaders, were generally elected by the people from among these nobles.

XV.—(1.) The city of FLORENCE was the most democratic body-politic in Italy, during its early period of free institutions. (2.) The first republican movement of Florentines was to divide themselves into fifty companies of militia, each with a chosen captain. (3.) The fifty captains formed a representative body, or council of the state. (4.) Two chief magistrates were chosen, called a *podesta*, and a *capitano del popolo*, or captain of the people. (5.) The first was a civil, and the second a military, head of the republic.

XVI.—(1.) The republic was divided into six parishes, each called a *sestier*. (2.) Each *sestier* elected two magistrates, called *anziani*, or elders. (3.) The twelve magistrates so chosen were called the *signoria*, and were intrusted with authority over the *podesta* and captain of the people. (4.) The twelve magistrates took their meals together, dwelt at the same public palace, and never appeared but in company. (5.) Their term of office was limited to two months.

XVII.—(1.) The magistrates called *anziani* afterward gave place to the *priori delle arti*, or presidents of arts. (2.) The arts, or trades, signified members of certain trades and professions associated as corporations, called higher and lower corporations. (3.) At

(4.) What power did mountain nobles hold? (5.) What did the nobles resident on plains do? (6.) What did these nobles become?

XV.—(1.) What is said of Florence? (2.) What was the first republican movement? (3.) What did the fifty captains form? (4.) What chief magistrates were chosen? (5.) What authority did these magistrates hold?

XVI.—(1.) How was the Florentine republic divided? (2.) What officers were elected? (3.) What is said of these twelve? (4.) What was their practice? (5.) What was their term of office?

XVII.—(1.) What change was afterward made? (2.) What did the trades signify? (3.) Who were chosen magistrates?

first, three, and subsequently six, representatives of the higher trades were chosen magistrates. (4.) The *priori delle arti* were chosen for two months, and lived together in the public palace, as the *anziani* had done.

XVIII.—(1.) At the head of the college of *arti* was an officer called gonfalonier of justice. (2.) When this officer displayed the gonfalon, or standard, of the republic, all citizens were obliged to assemble in defence of the state, or to assist in executing the laws. (3.) At this period, nobles were excluded from office by law.

XIX.—(1.) The corporations of trades, dividing Florentine citizens, were twenty-one in number. (2.) The seven higher professions were called the *major arts*, comprising merchants, manufacturers, scholars, and the like. (3.) The *minor arts* were handicrafts and rougher arts or trades.

XX.—(1.) The magistrates of the Florentine republic were selected, at first, by drawing lots. (2.) A general register was previously made, comprising all citizens thirty years of age who were eligible to vote. (3.) Out of this register a list of citizens suitable to hold office as magistrates was selected by a majority of the magistrates in power. (4.) Each magistrate had a right to name some candidate. (5.) The list of candidates was then submitted to thirty-six deputies, chosen by the six divisions of the city, called the *balia*. (6.) The *balia* struck out whatever names they disagreed to, and classified the rest. (7.) The names were then divided by series, placed into a purse, and drawn out under suitable supervision.

XXI.—(1.) The people of Florence continued to assemble in

(4.) What is said of the *priori delle arti*?

XVIII.—(1.) What officer was at the head of the arts, or trades? (2.) What were citizens obliged to do? (3.) What persons were excluded from office?

XIX.—(1.) How many corporations of trades were there? (2.) What were the major arts? (3.) What were the minor arts?

XX.—(1.) How were magistrates selected? (2.) What was previously made? (3.) What list was prepared? (4.) What right did each magistrate possess? (5.) What was the *balia*? (6.) What did the *balia* do? (7.) What was then done with the names?

XXI.—(1.) What assemblies continued?

their parliaments, held on the public square. (2.) There they voted, by raising their voices, on propositions submitted to them by the signoria. (3.) They claimed, as the whole people, to be superior to laws and constitutions. (4.) The popular parliament thus possessed irresponsible supremacy, liable to be influenced for evil by designing demagogues. (5.) The *balia* represented the power of the people as their chosen delegates.

XXII.—(1.) An aristocracy of wealth grew up, from the election of rich merchants to principal offices. (2.) These persons succeeded in admitting members of the nobility to a share in government. (3.) A combination of the nobles and wealthy families followed this encroachment on democracy. (4.) The minor corporations asserted their rights, from time to time, and at one period succeeded in electing a woollen worker to the chief magistracy. (5.) The influence of wealthy classes finally predominated, and the people lost all voice in the administration of public affairs. (6.) The principal magistrate became a hereditary duke, and the republic of Florence merged into the Grand Duchy of Tuscany.

XXIII.—(1.) The republic of Florence lost its democratic character by permitting the influence of wealth and luxurious display to destroy the early love of individual freedom. (2.) The division of citizens into distinct ranks, based on their trades, occasioned jealousies between persons claiming equal privileges of voting. (3.) Different arts and trades became opposed, and each desired its own representatives in government, without respect to fitness for office. (4.) The contentions thus engendered afforded opportunities for ambitious possessors of wealth and title to combine against an uneducated and dependent populace. (5.) Then followed misguided

(2.) What did the people do? (3.) What did they claim to be? (4.) What was the effect of this? (5.) What did the *balia* represent?

XXII.—(1.) What grew up in the state? (2.) What did the aristocrats succeed in doing? (3.) What combination followed? (4.) What did the minor corporations assert? (5.) What finally occurred? (6.) What government replaced popular institutions?

XXIII.—(1.) How did the Florentine republic lose its popular freedom? (2.) What jealousies were occasioned? (3.) What is said of arts and trades? (4.) What did their contentions afford? (5.) What followed in the state?

democracy, disorder and anarchy, ended only by the usurped government of tyrants.

XXIV.—(1.) The VENETIAN REPUBLIC was founded by fugitives from various parts of the Roman empire, driven from their homes by barbarians. (2.) The fugitives settled several small islands situated on the marshes of the Adriatic shore. (3.) The first colonists supported themselves by fishing, manufacturing salt, and voyaging in light vessels for trading purposes.

XXV.—(1.) The population of each island constituted a separate independent body-politic. (2.) They administered public affairs in a simple way, by tribunes and popular assemblies. (3.) Afterward, citizens of all the islands met in a convention, and elected a single chief called a doge, or duke. (4.) About the time of Charlemagne they united in building the city that has been since known as VENICE.

XXVI.—(1.) Many families of ancient Italian nobility were comprised in the early community of Venice: (2.) They submitted to laws framed by the popular majority, and gained possession of magistracies only by degrees. (3.) The doge of Venice was an elected ruler, and his power was strictly limited by regulations made in assemblies of the people. (4.) When the aristocracy became more influential, they succeeded in having authority given to the doge to appoint a private council from members of ancient families.

XXVII.—(1.) A grand council of state was formed, numbering four hundred and eighty persons. (2.) The republic was previously divided into six sections. (3.) Each section chose annually two

XXIV.—(1.) How was the Venetian republic founded? (2.) Where did the fugitives locate? (3.) How were they supported?

XXV.—(1.) What is said of each island? (2.) How did they administer public affairs? (3.) What combination was afterward formed? (4.) What was done about the time of Charlemagne?

XXVI.—(1.) What is said of the Venetian community? (2.) What of the nobility? (3.) What was the doge's position? (4.) What did the aristocracy succeed in doing?

XXVII.—(1.) What body of representatives was constituted? (2.) How was the republic previously divided? (3.) What did each section choose?

grand electors, or tribunes, as popular representatives. (4.) The twelve electors so appointed named the four hundred and eighty members of the grand council. (5.) No more than four members of any one family could be named. (6.) The same persons could hold office any number of terms. (7.) It soon became a custom to reelect all who served well, dropping only those who had become unpopular.

XXVIII.—(1.) The grand council elected from its own members all other officers of state. (2.) They chose the doge, and six counsellors of the red robe, to constitute a *Signoria*. (3.) The doge was chosen for life, the red-robe counsellors for a term of eight months. (4.) Another council of sixty members, called the *Pregadi*, was appointed each year. (5.) The grand council also chose a body of forty judges, called the *Quarantia*, to take charge of criminal justice.

XXIX.—(1.) The doge was sworn to execute the laws and guard the liberties of the republic. (2.) When he died, a commission of inquiry was appointed to ascertain if he had exceeded his powers. (3.) If such appeared to be the case, his heirs were held responsible for all damage to the state.

XXX.—(1.) The grand council afterward provided for selecting the doge by committees and the drawing of lots. (2.) They first appointed a commission by lot from the whole body of counsellors. (3.) The members of this commission named a smaller committee. (4.) The committee thus appointed drew lots for the choice of a body of one quarter of its members. (5.) At last the

(4.) What did the twelve electors do? (5.) What restriction was made? (6.) What could the same persons do? (7.) What was the consequence?

XXVIII.—(1.) What did the grand council do? (2.) How did they form the signoria? (3.) How long did these magistrates hold office? (4.) What other council was appointed annually? (5.) What is said of the quarantia?

XXIX.—(1.) What was the doge sworn to do? (2.) What took place at his death? (3.) What was the result?

XXX.—(1.) For what did the grand council afterward provide? (2.) What body did they first appoint? (3.) What did the members of the first commission name? (4.) What did the committee do? (5.) What result was reached at last?

number of commissioners was reduced to forty-one, and these elected the doge by a majority of twenty-five votes.

XXXI.—(1.) The people were deprived of all liberty in the choice of their magistrates. (2.) At a later period the privilege of choosing their twelve electors was also taken from the citizens at large. (3.) The *quarantia*, or forty criminal judges, were empowered to overlook the list of grand counsellors every year, strike off such as were not suitable, and fill up vacancies. (4.) This was the beginning of that hereditary aristocracy which ruled Venice always after.

XXXII.—(1.) The names of all members of the grand council were then inscribed in a register called the Golden Book. (2.) The *quarantia* were instructed to select no *new* man for membership, but only members of families which had previously furnished grand counsellors. (3.) All limitation as to number was abandoned, and any Venetian twenty-five years of age, descended from a grand counsellor, became entitled to sit as a member of the body.

XXXIII.—(1.) The organization of a Venetian aristocracy was completed by the creation of a body of supreme magistrates called the Council of Ten. (2.) This body consisted of ten counsellors of the black robe, annually elected by the grand council, assisted by six counsellors of the red robe and the doge, as members of the *signoria*. (3.) The Council of Ten was intrusted with a power superior to the laws. (4.) Its members were deputed to watch over the nobles and punish their crimes against the state. (5.) The deliberations and action of these magistrates were secret, and the

XXXI.—(1.) Of what were the Venetian people deprived? (2.) What encroachments were made at a later period? (3.) To what body was given the power of revising the list of grand counsellors? (4.) Of what this was the beginning?

XXXII.—(1.) What names were then registered? (2.) What instructions were given to the *quarantia*? (3.) What persons were allowed to be grand counsellors?

XXXIII.—(1.) What is said of the Council of Ten? (2.) Of what persons did this body consist? (3.) What was its power? (4.) What were its members deputed to do? (5.) What is said of these magistrates?

authority of their tribunal was unlimited over every citizen. (6.) They controlled an organization of spies and police.

XXXIV.—(1.) The republic of SIENNA was organized as an aristocracy of citizens, excluding members of the nobility. (2.) The signoria consisted of nine magistrates, chosen for two months. (3.) The signoria assumed tyrannical authority, and was replaced by a magistracy of twelve members. (4.) Sienna experienced all the evils of power exercised by an ignorant populace.

XXXV.—(1.) The republic of LUCCA passed through various forms of popular organization. (2.) Its later administrations were aristocratic, the chief offices being confined to about one hundred and fifty families, whose members exercised power by rotation. (3.) Its authorities consisted of a gonfalonier, nine anziani, or elders, a legislature of thirty-six members, and a grand council of ninety.

XXXVI.—(1.) The republic of GENOA was ruled by an aristocracy of noble and wealthy families. (2.) The names of these families were inscribed in a golden book, like that established in Venice. (3.) The number registered did not comprise more than one hundred and seventy families.

XXXVII.—(1.) A chief magistrate, called *Doge*, was elected by all the people. (2.) A council of state was constituted from members of the aristocratic classes. (3.) The doge was required to be fifty years of age, and to reside in the *Palazzo della Signoria*, where the senate held its sessions.

XXXVIII.—(1.) The doge exercised the right of proposing all

(6.) What did they control?

XXXIV.—(1.) What is said of Sienna? (2.) Of what did its signoria consist? (3.) What befell the signoria? (4.) What did Sienna experience?

XXXV.—(1.) What is said of Lucca? (2.) What were its later administrations? (3.) Of what did its authorities consist?

XXXVI.—(1.) What is said of Genoa? (2.) What of a golden book? (3.) What was the number registered?

XXXVII.—(1.) What is said of a doge? (2.) How was a council of state formed? (3.) What was required of the doge?

XXXVIII.—(1.) What is said concerning laws?

laws for passage by the senate, and none could be enacted without his acquiescence. (2.) All decrees and orders of the republic were issued in the name of its first magistrate.

XXXIX.—(1.) The doge was at first chosen to office for a term of two years, and was then obliged to serve as a senator and procurator for five years, before he became eligible to a second election. (2.) Afterward, the chief magistrate was chosen for life.

XL.—(1.) The doge was assisted in his administration by twelve governors and eight procurators (not including ex-doges who served in the latter positions). (2.) The procurators and governors were elected for two years, and formed a government or privy council. (3.) The procurators had charge of all financial matters of the republic.

XLI.—(1.) In earlier days of the Genoese republic, its sovereignty was possessed by two bodies of citizens called the Great Council and the Smaller Council. (2.) The first, of three hundred members, was constituted from Genoese nobles twenty-two years old. (3.) The second, of one hundred members, was selected from the older families of the state.

XLII.—(1.) The two councils possessed the right to deliberate, in connection with the governors and procurators, upon laws, customs, taxes and levies, a majority vote deciding all questions. (2.) The smaller council negotiated peace, declared war, and made alliances, four-fifths deciding all questions.

XLIII.—(1.) The Genoese nobility comprised two orders, termed

(2.) In whose name were laws issued?

XXXIX.—(1.) What was the doge's term of office? (2.) How was this regulation changed?

XL.—(1.) Who assisted the doge? (2.) What is said of these officers? (3.) Of what did the procurators have charge?

XLI.—(1.) What is said of early government in Genoa? (2.) What was the first of these bodies? (3.) What is said of the other?

XLII.—(1.) What right of deliberation had the two councils? (2.) What powers did the smaller council exercise?

XLIII.—(1.) What did the nobility comprise?

old and new. (2.) The old nobility was confined to twenty-eight families, including the Grimaldi, Fieschi, Doria, Spinola, and others. (3.) The new nobility numbered four hundred and thirty-seven families. (4.) The doge could be chosen from either order, as enrolled in the Golden Book.

XLIV.—(1.) Milan, Bologna, and other Italian cities and states, partook, more or less, of a republican character, at different periods of their history. (2.) Like Florence and Venice, they fell under the power of aristocratic families, or military oligarchies. (3.) Tyranny and hereditary monarchy followed, till all at length succumbed to foreign power. (4.) The history of Florence and Venice is the history of all others, in respect of prosperity and decline.

XLV.—(1.) The changes of Italian governments exhibit the danger of encouraging distinctions of classes, whether of poor or rich. (2.) The rise and progress of republicanism in Italian cities were based on virtue and industry in the people at large. (3.) Its decline and fall were caused by popular ignorance and servility controlled by luxurions and ambitious claimants to superior birth. (4.) Italian republics were prevented from uniting as a confederation by the jealousies of arrogant families, who divided communities and individuals in their respective causes. (5.) Venetia, on the Italian peninsula, is now governed as a province of Austria, and the remainder of Italy is organized under royal governments.

(2.) How was the old nobility limited? (3.) What did the new number? (4.) From what was the doge chosen?

XLIV.—(1.) What is said of other Italian cities and states? (2.) What happened to them? (3.) What followed? (4.) What is said of their histories?

XLV.—(1.) What do the changes of Italian governments exhibit? (2.) What is said of Italian republicanism? (3.) What of its decay? (4.) How was Italian confederation prevented? (5.) What is the present condition of Italian states?

CHAPTER IV.

HANSEATIC LEAGUE OF FREE CITIES.

I.—(1.) WHEN the feudal system began to oppress all ranks below nobility, in France, Germany, and Italy, the trading class of every community adopted measures to protect its members. (2.) By means of commerce, individuals grew wealthy, and made their riches the means of securing special privileges from the nobility or landholding lords.

II.—(1.) The first privilege obtained by cities was that of building walls, and the next was that of choosing their local magistrates. (2.) These privileges were usually secured by written guaranties called *charters*, signed by the monarchs. (3.) Many cities obtained such charters from the sovereigns of France and Germany, and in consequence became rich and flourishing capitals.

III.—(1.) Chartered or free cities, organized their government generally on an aristocratic basis. (2.) They became places of refuge for individuals oppressed by feudal usages. (3.) Their chief citizens embarked in commercial enterprises, and grew to be wealthy and powerful enough to defy princes and nobles.

IV.—(1.) A great commercial and political combination of chartered cities was formed in the twelfth century. (2.) It became known as the Hanseatic League of Free Cities. (3.) *Hanse* signifies an association for mutual dependence. (4.) The German

I.—(1.) What is said of trading classes? (2.) What was the result of commerce?

II.—(1.) What privileges were obtained by cities? (2.) How were these privileges secured? (3.) What is said concerning such charters?

III.—(1.) How were chartered cities generally governed? (2.) What did they become? (3.) What is said of their chief citizens?

IV.—(1.) What combination was formed? (2.) Under what name did it become known? (3.) What does the word *Hanse* signify? (4.) What cities

cities of Lubeck, Hamburg, and Bremen, were at the head of this league, which numbered at one period eighty-five cities. (5.) The merchants of allied cities engrossed nearly all the commerce of Europe, and became so formidable to monarchy, that many kings compelled their cities to withdraw from the league.

V.—(1.) The Hanseatic League of Cities preserved the spirit of free institutions during all the feudal period. (2.) Through the power and influence exercised by these confederated communities, merchants, manufacturers, and artisans, were enabled to assert their independence of claims that were founded on rank alone. (3.) The democratic or middle classes found leisure and means to educate themselves and children. (4.) Industry and enterprise were measured against idleness and arrogance, and freedom of commerce prepared the way for freedom of thought.

VI.—(1.) German Free Cities were originally seats of powerful landholding nobles or dignitaries of the church. (2.) Most of them purchased their first charters from the emperor, for large sums of money contributed by wealthy members of the community. (3.) The citizens were usually divided into three classes. (4.) First came the class of free citizens, entitled to hold office; second, the outside citizens, composed of farmers, strangers, and soldiers; and third, corporations or trades-unions.

VII.—(1.) Several Free Cities of France were noted as powerful and flourishing municipalities. (2.) The cities of Liege, Ghent, Bruges, and other Flemish chartered corporations, chose their own magistrates, and established strong bodies of militia to defend their privileges, even against kings. (3.) The population of every city was organized into corporations, or guilds, of trades-

headed the League? (5) What is said of merchants of the allied cities?

V.—(1.) What spirit did the Hanseatic League preserve? (2.) What effect was manifested? (3.) How were the people benefited? (4.) What good results followed?

VI.—(1) What were German Free Cities originally? (2.) How did they obtain charters? (3.) How were citizens usually divided? (4.) What were these classes?

VII.—1.) What is said of French Free Cities? (2.) What did they establish? (3.) How were their citizens organized?

men, each with its chief, or headman. (4.) Military captains of troops, both of horse and foot, were appointed by local magistrates to lead the local forces in time of danger.

VIII.—(1.) The Hanseatic League of Cities became enfeebled by local factions and domestic quarrels, caused by distinctions among citizens. (2.) Wealthy families grew luxurious in habit, and arrogant in pretensions. (3.) The people lost their independence, and the body-politic became like other communities, submissive to despotic power. (4.) Of the ancient confederation, only three cities, Lubeck, Hamburg, and Bremen, are now known as *Hanse Towns*.



CHAPTER V.

MODERN FREE CITIES.

I.—(1.) THE municipality of Hamburg is constituted as a mixed aristocratic and democratic commonwealth. (2.) There are no nobility, hereditary magistrates, or privileged classes. (3.) All citizens are considered to have an equal interest in the support of municipal institutions.

II.—(1.) Government consists of a senate and three assemblies, or colleges of citizens. (2.) The senate is composed of four magistrates called burgomasters, four called syndics, four secretaries, and twenty-four counsellors. (3.) Three of the burgomasters and eleven of the counsellors must be lawyers, and the remainder are merchants.

(4.) What leaders were appointed?

VIII.—(1.) How did the Hanseatic League become weakened? (2.) What is said of wealthy families? (3.) What followed this? (4.) What cities of the League now remain?

I.—(1.) How is the municipality of Hamburg constituted? (2.) What distinctions do not exist? (3.) How are all citizens regarded?

II.—(1.) Of what does Hamburg government consist? (2.) How is the senate composed? (3.) What qualifications must they have?

III.—(1.) The four syndics are lawyers, who are consulted for their opinion upon all legal questions, but have no vote in the senate. (2.) The qualifications of a citizen for the post of senator consist of three. (3.) He must be a native of Hamburg, thirty years of age, and a member of the Lutheran Church. (4.) The senate is a permanent body, having power to fill all vacancies in its own ranks. (5.) A vacancy is filled partly by ballot and partly by lot.

IV.—(1.) All the names of senators are written on slips of paper, which are put into a box. (2.) In another box are placed an equal number of slips, all blank but four, on which are written the word "*proposed*." (3.) The two youngest senators then draw a slip from each box, till the four inscribed with "*proposed*" are drawn.

V.—(1.) The four senators who have their names drawn out at the same time with four slips containing the word "*proposed*," are each entitled to propose a citizen to fill the vacant seat in the senate. (2.) When four candidates are selected, their names must be written on four ballots, which are folded and placed in one box. (3.) Four other ballots, on one of which is the word "*chosen*," are placed in the other box. (4.) The two youngest senators then draw as before, until the ballot containing the word "*chosen*" is drawn, and the name drawn with that ballot is the name of the new senator.

VI.—(1.) A citizen so elected senator is obliged to accept the post or quit the city of Hamburg, leaving one-tenth of his property behind him. (2.) He is required to take an oath of office, and then

III.—(1.) What are the four syndics? (2.) How many qualifications must a senator have? (3.) What are they? (4.) What is the senate? (5.) How is a vacancy filled?

IV.—(1.) What names are put into a box? (2.) What are placed in another box? (3.) What is then done?

V.—(1.) Who are entitled to propose candidates? (2.) What is done with candidates' names? (3.) What are placed in the other box? (4.) What then takes place?

VI.—(1.) What is an elected senator obliged to do? (2.) What else is required of him?

remain in his home till the next Sunday, when he is expected to attend church with the rest of the senate.

VII.—(1.) On first taking his seat, a newly-elected senator wears a black velvet cloak, without sleeves. (2.) Afterward he is permitted to wear the full senatorial robe, consisting of a velvet cloak, with sleeves, and a high-crowned, round hat, covered and fringed with black.

VIII.—(1.) The senate of Hamburg is the governing body, appointing agents and consuls to foreign countries, and receiving foreign envoys. (2.) It has authority to make all contracts, issue orders, grant letters-patent, and supervise the action of tribunals and other departments of justice and administration.

IX.—(1.) Next to the senate comes the general assembly of citizens, called *Bürgerschaft*. (2.) This is the body-politic of Hamburg, and is divided into five classes, or parishes, of citizens, who elect three legislative chambers called colleges.

X.—(1.) The first of the three colleges is called the College of Aldermen. (2.) It consists of fifteen—three being chosen by the privileged inhabitants of each one of the five parishes. (3.) The members of this college have the right to attend the meetings of the senate, and speak on any proposition therein submitted. (4.) They may impeach any senator whom they suspect of infringing the laws of Hamburg.

XI.—(1.) The second college of the *bürgerschaft*, or citizens, is called the College of Sixty. (2.) It is composed of the body of aldermen and forty-five other citizens, called *deacons*, nine chosen

VII.—(1.) What does a newly chosen senator wear? (2.) How is he afterward officially clothed?

VIII.—(1.) What power has the Hamburg senate? (2.) What is it empowered to do?

IX.—(1.) What body comes next to the senate in Hamburg? (2.) What is said of the *Bürgerschaft*?

X.—(1.) What is the first college called? (2.) How many members has the college of aldermen? (3.) What rights do they possess? (4.) What power may they exercise?

XI.—(1.) What is the second college called? (2.) How is the college of

from each parish. (3.) The duty of this college is to watch over the lower departments of government.

XII.—(1.) The third college is called the College of One Hundred and Eighty. (2.) It consists of the two other colleges and one hundred and twenty citizens called sub-deacons, twenty-four chosen from each parish.

XIII.—(1.) Another body of ten members, called the Chamber, is constituted by election of two citizens from each parish. (2.) This chamber is chosen for ten years, and its duty is to audit the public accounts and lay them before the senate.

XIV.—(1.) When an important law or measure is proposed, the general body of citizens, or whole *bürgerschaft*, is called together by the senate and college of aldermen, to meet in the senate house. (2.) It is requisite that at least two hundred citizens shall be present in this assembly, besides the colleges and senate.

XV.—(1.) A written explanation of the proposed law or measure is given to the chairman of each parish. (2.) The citizens retire to five rooms, each according to his parish, to discuss and vote upon the matter before them. (3.) No member of one parish is allowed to go into the room of another, under heavy penalties.

XVI.—(1.) When the citizens, each in his own parish, have decided their opinions, the five bodies reassemble. (2.) The question on the law or measure is taken by vote of the parishes. (3.) If three out of the five agree to the proposition, it is adopted; if not, it is rejected.

sixty composed? (3.) What is its duty?

XII.—(1.) What is the third college of *bürgerschaft* called? (2.) Of what does the college of one hundred and eighty consist?

XIII.—(1.) What is the Chamber? (2.) What is the duty of the Hamburg Chamber?

XIV.—(1.) What takes place when an important measure is proposed to be passed? (2.) What number of citizens must assemble?

XV.—(1.) What is furnished to each parish? (2.) What do the citizens do? (3.) What is not allowed?

XVI.—(1.) What is done after sufficient deliberation? (2.) How is the question taken, on adopting the law, or measure? (3.) What is requisite to pass the law?

XVII.—(1.) There are two classes of *burghers*, or citizens, in Hamburg, called the great and small citizens. (2.) The distinction between them is based on the possession of property, and affects only their liberty of trade. (3.) Great burghers are not liable to any restrictions, while small burghers are forbidden to do wholesale business in their own names.

XVIII.—(1.) The military force of Hamburg consists of about fifteen hundred foot soldiers and a militia of citizens trained to arms, called the *Burgher Guard*. (2.) Every citizen and son of a citizen is obliged to serve in this guard, from the age of eighteen to forty-five years, providing his own arms and clothing.

XIX.—(1.) The highest court of justice in Hamburg is composed of a burgomaster, worth five hundred dollars, ten senators, five lawyers, and five merchants. (2.) This court passes on important civil suits, and may reverse criminal decisions of lower tribunals. (3.) A lower court, composed of a president, two judges and an actuary, lawyers, and four other judges, not lawyers, tries criminal cases and small civil suits.

XX.—(1.) A third court is devoted to questions affecting trade, and is called the Court of Commerce. (2.) It is composed of a president, vice-president, nine merchants and two actuaries. (3.) The court is held twice every week, in two divisions or chambers.

XXI.—(1.) The city of LUBECK, originally chief of Hanse Towns, is still a free city, like Hamburg. (2.) Its government is intrusted to a senate and house of burgesses. (3.) Magistrates are chosen

XVII.—(1.) What divisions of citizens are there in Hamburg? (2.) On what is the distinction between them based? (3.) What is said of the two classes?

XVIII.—(1.) Of what does the Hamburg military consist? (2.) How is the militia formed?

XIX.—(1.) How is the highest judicial court composed? (2.) What jurisdiction has this court? (3.) What is said of a lower court?

XX.—(1.) What is the court of commerce? (2.) Of what persons does it consist? (3.) When and how is this court held?

XXI.—(1.) What is said of Lubeck? (2.) What is its government? (3.)

by members of these bodies, which represent the incorporated companies, or trades of the city. (4.) Lubeck, like Hamburg and Bremen, is a member of the Germanic Confederation, in which it possesses the privilege of casting a single vote in full council.

XXII.—(1.) BREMEN is the third of the free towns still in confederation. (2.) Its government is similar in character to that exercised in Hamburg. (3.) The principle of organization is aristocratic.

XXIII.—(1.) FRANKFORT-ON-THE-MAINE remains a free city, though not in confederation with the others. (2.) Its legislation is vested in a senate of forty two members. (3.) The right of voting for magistrates is exercised by the people, under some restrictions as to qualifications.

How are magistrates appointed? (4.) Of what other confederation, besides the Hanseatic League, is Lubeck a member?

XXII.—(1.) What is said of Bremen? (2.) What is its government? (3.) What is its principle of organization?

XXIII.—(1.) What is said of Frankfort? (2.) What of its legislature? (3.) What persons exercise suffrage?

AMERICAN REPUBLICAN STATES.

I.—(1.) THE American Republics are divided into those of North, Central, and South America. (2.) The United States of America is the general name given to a political union of the more northerly democratic states, governed by a federal head.

II.—(1.) The Mexican republic consists of a number of states or provinces confederated under one central government. (2.) The republics of Central America are five in number, each independent of the other. (3.) Their names are Costa Rica, Guatemala, Nicaragua, San Salvador, and Honduras. (4.) The republics of South America are independent sovereignties, with democratic forms of government.

III.—(1.) The United States were originally colonies planted by British, Dutch, Swedish, French, and Spanish emigrants. (2.) Thirteen colonies revolted from the government of Great Britain, and formed a confederacy.

IV.—(1.) The Mexican republic was composed of provinces

I.—(1.) How are American republics divided? (2.) What is the United States of America?

II.—(1.) Of what does the Mexican republic consist? (2.) What is said of Central American republics? (3.) What are their names? (4.) What are the South American republics?

III.—(1.) What were the United States originally? (2.) What is said of thirteen colonies?

IV.—(1.) Of what was the Mexican republic composed?

settled by Spaniards, who conquered the previous inhabitants. (2.) They revolted from Spain, and organized a republican government.

V.—(1.) The Central and South American republics were formerly military and civil colonies, planted by Spaniards, who conquered the Peruvians and other aboriginal nations. (2.) Their inhabitants threw off the domination of Spain, and formed separate independent states.

VI.—(1.) The HAYTIEN republican state is composed of negroes, mulattoes, and other descendants of Africans, formerly held as slaves by Spanish settlers. (2.) This state occupies a portion of the island of St. Domingo.

VII.—(1.) The republic of PERU is governed according to a constitution, by representative bodies. (2.) The legislature is composed of two houses, a senate and chamber of deputies. (3.) One-half the number of senators is elected every four years. (4.) One-third of the deputies is chosen every two years.

VIII.—(1.) The chief magistrate is styled President, and is elected for a term of six years. (2.) He cannot be reëlected till six years elapse after his term closes. (3.) The president selects a council of state of fifteen persons. (4.) No more than three of this council can belong to the army, and no more than three can be ecclesiastics.

IX.—(1.) The leading religion is Roman Catholic, with a hierarchy consisting of one archbishop and four bishops. (2.) The tribunals consist of a supreme court in the capital city, a superior court in each department, district courts in smaller circuits, and

(2.) What is said of these provinces?

V.—(1.) What were the South American republics formerly? (2.) What action did their inhabitants take?

VI.—(1.) Of what is the Haytien state composed? (2.) Where is this republic established?

VII.—(1.) How is Peru governed? (2.) How is the legislature composed? (3.) When are senators elected? (4.) When are deputies chosen?

VIII.—(1.) What is said of the chief magistrate? (2.) How is the president's office limited? (3.) What does the president select? (4.) What restrictions concern the council?

IX.—(1.) What is the religion of state? (2.) What are the tribunals?

justices of the peace. (3.) Each department of the republic has a police superintendent, with his subordinate officials. (4.) There are special courts instituted for the settlement of cases among the Indian tribes, and for the mining districts.

X.—(1.) The republic of **BOLIVIA** has a legislature composed of three chambers, that of senators, that of tribunes, and that of censors. (2.) The president holds office during life, and has the power of naming his successor.

XI.—(1.) The **ARGENTINE** republic consists of a state called La Plata. (2.) It formerly belonged to a confederacy of several South American provinces, which had revolted from Spanish rule. (3.) The president of La Plata possesses many arbitrary powers. (4.) The legislature is constituted of delegates elected from various districts, and representatives of the clergy.

XII.—(1.) The republic of **VENEZUELA** is divided into sixteen provinces, each of which elects a number of delegates to constitute two houses of the legislature. (2.) A president and vice-president are chosen by the people at large. (3.) Other departments of administration are established in a similar manner to like departments of the United States government.

XIII.—(1.) The republic of **ECUADOR** is divided into three departments, with subdivisions or districts. (2.) Delegates are chosen from districts to constitute a legislature. (3.) The population consists, as in other Spanish-American states, of descendants of Spaniards, and a number of mixed races, of various complexions. (4.) The president and vice-president compose the executive, and the

(3.) What police is established? (4.) What special courts are noticed?

X.—(1.) What legislature has Bolivia? (2.) What is said of the Bolivian president?

XI.—(1.) What is the Argentine republic? (2.) To what did it formerly belong? (3.) What is said of the president? (4.) How is the legislature constituted?

XII.—(1.) How is the legislature of Venezuela constituted? (2.) How is the executive formed? (3.) What is said of other departments?

XIII.—(1.) How is Ecuador divided? (2.) How is the legislature organized? (3.) What is said of the population? (4.) What constitutes executive and

legislature comprises senate and house of representatives (5.) A council of state is appointed to assist the president. (6.) Suffrage is exercised by persons of all races, and the privilege of holding office is open to all.

XIV.—(1.) The republics of New Granada, Venezuela, and Ecuador, formerly constituted a single state called the Colombian republic. (2.) New Granada is now an independent state, with a republican constitution resembling that of the American republic. (3.) A president and a legislature of two houses are elected by the people. (4.) All ranks and colors possess equal rights of suffrage and election to office. (5.) The state is divided into seven departments and two territories, with thirty-six provincial subdivisions.

XV.—(1.) The republic of CHILI is divided into eleven provincial departments, or states. (2.) The general government is conducted by a president and legislature. (3.) The president is assisted in the administration of public affairs by a council of eight members. (4.) The legislature consists of a senate and a house of deputies. (5.) The senate is composed of persons elected for nine years, from the provinces, two being allowed to each. (6.) One-third of the senators are chosen every three years. (7.) The house of deputies is elected for three years, by the people, one deputy being chosen for every twenty thousand inhabitants. (8.) The judiciary consists of a supreme court, court of appeals, and superior courts. (9.) A well-organized militia, called the national guard, and a standing army, comprise the military force of Chili.

XVI.—(1.) The republic of URAGUAY is governed as an independent state, under a constitution similar to that of other South

legislative bodies? (5.) What other body is appointed? (6.) What popular privileges are secured?

XIV.—(1.) What states were formerly comprised in a single republic? (2.) What is New Granada now? (3.) What authorities are popularly chosen? (4.) What privileges are common? (5.) How is the state divided?

XV.—(1.) How is Chili divided? (2.) How is its government conducted? (3.) What body assists the president? (4.) What branches compose the legislature? (5.) What persons form the senate? (6.) How are senators elected? (7.) How is the house of deputies constituted? (8.) Of what does the judiciary consist? (9.) What military organization is there?

XVI.—(1.) How is Uruguay governed?

American states. (2.) Equal suffrage, and the privilege of holding office, is extended to foreigners as well as natives.

XVII.—(1) The state of PARAGUAY is called a republic, but its president possesses extraordinary powers. (2.) He is elected for life, and exercises arbitrary authority. (3.) The state is divided into departments, called *partidos*, each governed by a commander, called the *Comisionado*. (4.) The commanders are appointed by the president, and responsible only to him.

XVIII.—(1.) Of the five states of Central America, Costa Rica enjoys the only secure government. (2.) This republic is divided into three political departments. (3.) Each of these is separated into *partidos*. (4.) The administration is intrusted to a president, and the law-making authority vested in a representative legislature. (5.) The other states—Guatemala, San Salvador, Honduras, and Nicaragua—pretend to republican organization, but are distracted by partisan chiefs, who oppose each other.

XIX.—(1.) The republic of Mexico is a combination of twenty-two states, five territories, and a federal district comprising the capital city. (2.) The constitution resembles, in its provisions, that of the American republic, but establishes a state religion of the Roman Catholic form. (3.) The government is divided, as in the United States of America, into legislative, administrative, and judicial departments. (4.) There is no provision for public courts or trial by jury. (5.) Of late years, the federal government has been unsettled, and the states distracted by contests of ambitious military chiefs.

(2.) What are the popular privileges?

XVII.—(1.) What is said of Paraguay? (2.) What is the position of the president? (3.) How is the state divided? (4.) What is said of the commanders?

XVIII.—(1.) What is said of Costa Rica? (2.) How is it divided? (3.) How subdivided? (4.) What is the form of government? (5.) What is the condition of other Central American states?

XIX.—(1.) How is the Mexican republic constituted? (2.) What does its federal constitution resemble? (3.) How is supreme authority divided? (4.) In what respects does the Mexican constitution differ from that of the American republic? (5.) What has been the condition of Mexico during late years?

THE

UNITED STATES

FEDERAL REPUBLIC.

GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED STATES.

I.—(1.) GOVERNMENT of the American Republic is founded on a Union entered into by the people of the original thirteen States and all other States subsequently admitted. (2.) Every State gives up certain powers and duties belonging to itself, to be exercised and performed by representatives of all the States, and by an administration elected by all the people.

II.—(1.) The governmental system of the United States is recorded and explained in a collection of articles and obligations agreed upon by all the people. (2.) In this written instrument of record the powers and duties of the national legislature and executive are defined. (3.) By the provisions therein specified, all the States and their citizens are governed as a single undivided nation (4.) This written instrument is called the "*Constitution of the United States.*"

I.—(1.) On what is government of the American Republic founded? (2.) What is said of certain powers and duties?

II.—(1.) What is said of the governmental system? (2.) What are defined in this instrument? (3.) What authority does it possess? (4.) What is this written instrument called?

III.—(1.) The national, or supreme government of the Union is composed of a first magistrate, called President, a Vice-President, and a legislative body called the Congress. (2.) The President is assisted by a cabinet of counsellors appointed by himself. (3.) The Congress is divided into two branches, called a Senate and a House of Representatives.

IV.—(1.) The Senate is composed of persons who have attained the age of thirty years, and been citizens during nine years. (2.) Senators are selected by the legislatures of the States. (3.) A senator represents the State from which he is sent, as an independent commonwealth and sovereign republic, under the national constitution. (4.) Every State is entitled to choose two senators, to serve for six years each.

V.—(1.) The House of Representatives is composed of persons twenty-five years old, who have been citizens during seven years. (2.) Representatives must be citizens of the State from which they are sent, chosen according to the laws of that State regarding elections.

VI.—(1.) Senators of the United States are divided into three parts, according to the date of their election. (2.) One-third of the number vacate their seats every two years. (3.) This insures an experienced body of legislators at all times.

VII.—(1.) Representatives are chosen once in two years. (2.) The legislative power of a single congress continues for that length of time. (3.) Representatives are voted for by electors of the dis-

III.—(1.) How is the American government composed? (2.) How is the President assisted? (3.) How is Congress divided?

IV.—(1.) How is the Senate composed? (2.) How are senators appointed? (3.) What does a senator represent? (4.) How many senators are allowed to each American State?

V.—(1.) How is the House of Representatives composed? (2.) What qualifications must representatives possess?

VI.—(1.) How are senators classified? (2.) What senators are changed every alternate year? (3.) What does this insure?

VII.—(1.) When are representatives chosen? (2.) What is said of congressional powers? (3.) How are representatives voted for?

trict which they represent in any State. (4.) A congressional district is fixed by law, and contains usually about one hundred thousand inhabitants.

VIII.—(1.) The President of the American Republic is elected for four years. (2.) His cabinet council consists of seven officers of state, each charged with the duties of a particular department of the government.

IX.—(1.) The seven officers are called Secretary of State, Secretary of the Treasury, Secretary of War, Secretary of the Navy, Secretary of the Interior, Postmaster-General, and Attorney-General. (2.) They receive their appointment from the President, and if approved by the Senate, become executive officers. (3.) They are subject to removal by the President, without consultation of the Senate.

MANNER OF LEGISLATING IN CONGRESS.

X.—(1.) The two branches of Congress, called Senate and House of Representatives, exercise joint legislative authority. (2.) They examine into all public business over which the Constitution allows Congress to have jurisdiction. (3.) The manner of legislating in Congress is by deliberation in committees, and by a vote of each house upon matters brought before its members during session.

XI.—(1.) Senators meet in one chamber and representatives in another. (2.) The House of Representatives is presided over by an officer called the Speaker, chosen from its members. (3.) The Senate is presided over by the Vice-President of the American Republic, or United States, in right of his office.

(4.) What is a congressional district?

VIII.—(1.) What is the President's term of office? (2.) What is said of his cabinet council?

IX.—(1.) What are the seven cabinet officers called? (2.) How are they selected? (3.) What authority may remove them?

X.—(1.) What authority has Congress? (2.) What do they do? (3.) What is the mode of congressional legislation?

XI.—(1.) Where does Congress assemble? (2.) Who presides over the representative branch? (3.) Who presides over the Senate?

XII.—(1.) Every proposition for the passage of a law or measure introduced into one or the other branch of Congress is called either a *Bill* or a *Resolution*. (2.) When a bill is proposed, it must be submitted in writing, and pass through certain forms of scrutiny and discussion before passage. (3.) If a bill be adopted by both houses, it must receive the President's signature before it can go into operation as an Act of Congress. (4.) An Act of Congress remains the law of the land until it is modified or repealed by another Act of Congress.

XIII.—(1.) When a bill is passed by both houses, it is presented to the President for approval. (2.) If he objects to its passage, he returns it to Congress without his signature, stating his reasons for so doing. (3.) This act is termed a *veto* of the bill, from a Latin word signifying "I forbid."

XIV.—(1.) If the President fails to return a bill in ten days after its presentation to him, it is considered to be approved, and takes effect as an Act of Congress. (2.) If it be returned with the President's veto, it may still become a law, provided two-thirds of each house agree to pass it without the President's approval.

XV.—(1.) A bill may be introduced in either of the two houses, provided it is not to raise revenues for government. (2.) All bills so relating to money must first be presented in the House of Representatives. (3.) A bill is introduced in Congress by a representative or senator, who rises in his seat and presents it to the speaker. (4.) If no objection be made, it is read once by its title, and then

XII.—(1.) What is meant by a bill or resolution? (2.) What is done with a bill? (3.) What is requisite for every bill? (4.) What is said of an Act of Congress?

XIII.—(1.) What is done with a bill passed by both houses? (2.) How does the President negative a bill? (3.) What is the act of returning a bill with objections called?

XIV.—(1.) When is a bill considered to be passed? (2.) How may a bill be passed in opposition to the President's objections?

XV.—(1.) How may bills be brought before Congress? (2.) In what house must bills to raise money originate? (3.) What is the manner of presenting a bill? (4.) What is done with a bill when presented without objection?

referred to a committee of members having charge of the public business to which it pertains.

XVI.—(1.) When a bill is so referred, it becomes the duty of a committee having charge of it to consider it carefully. (2.) If it meets their approval, it is their province to recommend it to the house where it originated, for adoption by the members. (3.) If the committee be opposed to its passage, they may make an unfavorable report upon it. (4.) Their report may then be accepted or rejected by the house to which it is presented.

XVII.—(1.) If a bill be recommended for passage, it receives a second reading by its title, and is committed to a committee of the whole for discussion. (2.) A committee of the whole means all members of either house who deliberate at certain times on the merits of bills.

XVIII.—(1.) If a bill be favorably reported from committee of the whole, it is ordered to be engrossed for a third reading, with such alterations or amendments, if any, as have been made in committee of the whole. (2.) After a third reading, a vote upon it is taken by yeas and nays of all members present. (3.) If a majority of all the members of one house vote in its favor, it is declared passed, and must be sent to the other house of Congress for consideration.

XIX.—(1.) When a bill is laid before the other house, it is referred to committee of the whole in that house. (2.) If favorably reported, it is read a third time and then voted upon. (3.) If a majority of all the members be in favor of it, it is declared to be

XVI.—(1.) What is the duty of committees? (2.) What should a committee do with a bill if it be approved? (3.) What if disapproved? (4.) What action may be taken on a committee's report.

XVII.—(1.) What is done with a bill after it is recommended for passage? (2.) What is meant by a committee of the whole?

XVIII.—(1.) What becomes of a bill when it is approved in committee of the whole? (2.) What is done when a bill has been read for the third time? (3.) What number of votes is required to pass a bill?

XIX.—(1.) What is done with a bill when sent for consideration to the other house? (2.) What action is afterward taken? (3.) What is necessary

passed, and transmitted to the President for approval. (4.) If amended or altered before passage, it must be returned to the house in which it originated (5.) If that house agrees to the amendments or alterations, it will become an Act of Congress, and, when signed by the President, a law.

POWERS OF CONGRESS.

XX.—(1.) Each house of Congress possesses power to decide whether its members are or are not entitled to their seats. (2.) Each may compel the attendance of members who absent themselves without sufficient cause. (3.) Each house has exclusive authority over its own members for any offence they commit as legislators.

XXI.—(1.) Congress is empowered to levy and collect taxes, and raise money by other means, for government expenses. (2.) It makes all necessary regulations for commercial intercourse. (3.) It grants the privileges of citizenship to foreigners, under such restrictions as it may adopt.

XXII.—(1.) Congress alone has authority to coin money, and regulate the value of coined money. (2.) It passes laws to fix the standard of weights and measures throughout all the States. (3.) It makes laws to punish persons who counterfeit the national money. (4.) It has power to pass laws for the relief of debtors. (5.) It establishes post-offices and post roads, and authorizes contracts for carrying the mails. (6.) It makes laws for the protection and reward of authors and inventors, who produce valuable works.

to its passage or adoption? (4.) What must be done with the bill if it be amended or altered? (5.) What is then necessary to its passage?

XX.—(1.) What peculiar power does each house of Congress possess? (2.) What may each house do? (3.) What exclusive authority has each house?

XXI.—(1.) What is Congress empowered to do? (2.) What regulations does it make? (3.) What privileges does it grant?

XXII.—(1.) What sole authority has Congress? (2.) What laws does it pass? (3.) What penalties does it establish? (4.) What power has it to grant relief? (5.) What powers has it regarding posts? (6.) What protection does it provide for certain persons?

XXIII.—(1.) Congress provides for the establishing of national courts and tribunals under the Supreme Court of the United States. (2.) It establishes penalties for the punishment of piracy and other offences against the law of nations. (3.) It has power to declare war, regulate rules and methods of warfare, and raise and support armies. (4.) It has jurisdiction over the land and sea forces of the country, and can call out the militia of all the States, in case of necessity. (5.) It claims exclusive government over the District of Columbia, and over all naval stations, forts, arsenals, and other works or territory owned by the United States.

XXIV.—(1.) Congress possesses authority to dispose of public lands and territories not included under the jurisdiction of any State of the Union. (2.) It makes necessary laws and regulations for the government of persons residing on such lands. (3.) It has power to explain the offence of treason, and provide penalties for it.

XXV.—(1.) Congress has power to admit new States into the confederacy, when such States are formed out of the public territory owned by the United States. (2.) It may regulate, by law, the times, places, and manner of holding elections for representatives, and the time and manner of electing senators.

XXVI.—(1.) All laws, orders, and resolutions, necessary in exercising the authority of Congress, must pass under the rules of both houses. (2.) They must be agreed to by at least a majority of the members of both. (3.) Every order, resolution, or vote (except a vote of adjournment), on which both houses act, is re-

XXIII.—(1.) What judicial institutions does Congress provide? (2.) What penalties does it establish? (3.) What military authority does it possess? (4.) What military jurisdiction does it exercise? (5.) What exclusive government does it claim?

XXIV.—(1.) What power has Congress over the soil? (2.) What laws does it establish over territories? (3.) What offence may it define and punish?

XXV.—(1.) What power has Congress to enlarge the confederation? (2.) What elections may it regulate?

XXVI.—(1.) How must all legislation be conducted? (2.) What is necessary to the passage of Congressional laws? (3.) What is necessary to the legality of all action taken by both houses of Congress?

quired to be submitted to the President of the United States before it can take effect.

POWERS OF THE UNITED STATES SENATE.

XXVII.—(1.) The Senate has power to judge of the rights and qualifications of its own members. (2.) It exercises exclusive jurisdiction over their conduct as legislators. (3.) It chooses an officer to preside over its deliberations, in the absence of the Vice-President of the United States, who is the regular officer. (4.) It appoints all other officers and clerks and committees necessary to the transaction of its affairs.

XXVIII.—(1.) The Senate has sole power of trying all cases of impeachment. (2.) Impeachment is a charge brought against the President, Vice-President, or any civil officer of the United States, for treason, bribery, or any other high offence. (3.) Impeachment must be presented by the House of Representatives before being tried by the Senate.

POWERS OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES.

XXIX.—(1.) The House of Representatives possesses the same jurisdiction and authority over its own members as is possessed by the Senate over members of that body. (2.) It elects a speaker to preside over its deliberations during the term for which each congress is chosen.

XXX.—(1.) The House elects officers and clerks to perform various duties connected with its legislation. (2.) It possesses power, like the Senate, to appoint committees of investigation from

XXVII.—(1.) What particular power has the Senate? (2.) What exclusive jurisdiction does it exercise? (3.) What chief officer does it choose? (4.) What other officials does it appoint?

XXVIII.—(1.) What sole power has the Senate? (2.) What is meant by impeachment? (3.) In what house must impeachment be made?

XXIX.—(1.) What particular authority is possessed by the House of Representatives? (2.) What chief officer does it elect?

XXX.—(1.) What other officials does the House elect? (2.) What power does it possess to appoint committees?

its members, and to give such committees authority to summon witnesses and administer oaths.

XXXI.—(1.) The House has sole authority to place high officials of civil administration under impeachment. (2.) The House acts as an accuser of the party charged with offence, while the Senate is the tribunal to decide upon the charge. (3.) Two-thirds of the representatives must vote for an impeachment before it can be presented to the Senate for action.

XXXII.—(1.) The House has sole authority to bring forward measures for the purpose of raising a revenue to pay government expenses.

MEMBERS OF CONGRESS.

XXXIII.—(1.) In all cases except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, members of Congress are privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session, and in going to or returning to the same. (2.) No senator or representative can be called to account elsewhere, for any speech or remark that he makes during debate as a legislator.

XXXIV.—(1.) Senators and representatives of Congress now receive, as compensation, a fixed yearly salary, in lieu of former additions to their per diem pay. (2.) Their privilege of using the United States mails, free of charge, is restricted.

XXXV.—Every senator or representative is entitled to receive, in addition to his salary, a certain sum, per mile, for the

XXXI.—(1.) What sole power does the House possess? (2.) What is said of impeachment? (3.) What is required for the presenting of impeachments?

XXXII.—(1.) What sole authority is exercised by the House of Representatives?

XXXIII.—(1.) What privileges have members of Congress? (2.) How are they protected?

XXXIV.—(1.) What compensation is made to every member of Congress? (2.) What privilege is restricted?

XXXV.—(1.) What additions to salary do members of Congress receive?

distance which he travels at each session, in going and returning between his residence and the capital, or seat of government.

XXXVI.—(1.) Each house of Congress possesses the privilege of ordering books, documents, and other printed matter and stationery, for the use of every member. (2.) Most of the books printed by order of Congress are intended for distribution to libraries, and literary or scientific associations, through members of Congress, to whom they are assigned.

RESTRICTIONS OF MEMBERS OF CONGRESS.

XXXVII.—(1.) No senator or representative can hold any other civil office, either elective or appointed, while he continues to be a member of Congress. (2.) He cannot be appointed to any civil office under the national government during the term for which he was elected, if such office be created, or its emoluments increased, during that term.

XXXVIII.—(1.) Senators and representatives, and all other officers of the United States government, are forbidden to accept any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state, without special consent of Congress.

POWERS OF THE PRESIDENT.

XXXIX.—(1.) The President of the United States is commander-in-chief of the army and navy, and of the militia of all the States, when the latter are in actual service. (2.) He may require a written opinion from the head of each department under government, upon any matter embraced in the duties of such department.

XXXVI.—(1.) What privilege does each house possess? (2.) What distribution is intended to be made?

XXXVII.—(1.) How is a member of Congress restricted as to holding office? (2.) What appointments is he prevented from receiving?

XXXVIII.—(1.) What is forbidden to United States officials?

XXXIX.—(1.) What military command has the President? (2.) What may

(3.) He has power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences committed against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

XL.—(1.) The President has power to make all treaties, with consent of two-thirds of the Senate, at any of its sessions. (2.) He appoints ambassadors, agents and officers, under the national government, whose appointment is not otherwise provided for by law.

XLI.—(1.) The President has power to call Congress to assemble on occasions when he deems it necessary. (2.) When a disagreement takes place between the two houses in reference to adjournment, the President may adjourn them to such time as he thinks proper.

XLII.—(1.) The President possesses power to prevent the enactment of any measure by Congress, unless two-thirds of the members of both houses vote in its favor.

ELECTION OF PRESIDENT AND VICE-PRESIDENT.

XLIII.—(1.) In order to be eligible to the office of President, a person must have been born in the United States. (2.) He must have resided in the country at least fourteen years, and must be thirty-five years of age when elected.

XLIV.—(1.) In order to be eligible to the office of Vice-President, a person must possess the same qualifications as for that of President. (2.) The two officers are elected at the same time and for the same term.

he require from heads of departments? (3.) What judicial power does he possess?

XL.—(1.) What authority makes treaties? (2.) What appointments does the President make?

XLI.—(1.) What power has the President to assemble the Congress? (2.) What adjourning power has he?

XLII.—(1.) What power has the President over congressional action?

XLIII.—(1.) What is the first qualification for presidential office? (2.) What other qualifications are necessary?

XLIV.—(1.) What qualifications must the Vice-President possess? (2.) How are both officers chosen?

XLV.—(1.) The Vice-President is presiding officer of the Senate. (2.) If the office of President be vacated during a presidential term, the Vice-President becomes acting President, or chief magistrate. (3.) He then resigns his place as presiding officer of the Senate to some senator elected by that body.

XLVI.—(1.) If the offices of President and Vice-President be both vacated during a presidential term, the powers and duties of chief magistrate devolve upon the Speaker of the House of Representatives.

XLVII.—(1.) The President and Vice-President of the United States are chosen, once in four years, by votes of electors delegated by the people of States in their respective districts.

XLVIII.—(1.) The people do not vote directly for the names of President or Vice-President on a ticket or ballot. (2.) The voters of each State choose a number of officers, called electors, to represent them in an assembly denominated an electoral college. (3.) The electoral college of each State meets at its State capital immediately after a presidential election.

XLIX.—(1.) The number of electors chosen by each State is just equal to the number of senators and representatives to which such State is entitled in the national Congress. (2.) A list of the names of candidates for electors is printed on a single ballot. (3.) The whole list together is voted for by all the voters of a State. (4.) There may be as many lists as there are parties voting in the State.

XLV.—(1.) What position does the Vice-President hold? (2.) What office may he fill? (3.) What does he do when called upon to act as President?

XLVI.—(1.) What officer becomes acting President in case both elected officers are removed?

XLVII.—(1.) When are President and Vice-President elected?

XLVIII.—(1.) What is said respecting the votes for President and Vice-President? (2.) What do the voters of each State do? (3.) When do the electoral colleges meet?

XLIX.—(1.) What number of electors is chosen by each State? (2.) What is printed on a single ballot? (3.) How are the electors voted for? (4.) How many lists may there be?

L.—(1.) The persons named upon the list of candidates which receives the greatest number of votes in a State are declared electors for President and Vice-President. (2.) They are supposed to represent the popular vote of the State. (3.) No United States senator or representative, and no person holding office under the national government, is eligible to be chosen an elector.

LI.—(1.) When electors of a State are chosen in this manner, they proceed to meet and cast their own votes. (2.) Each elector votes for a President, and for a Vice-President. (3.) One of the persons for whom he votes must not be an inhabitant of the State which the electors represent. (4.) Each elector names on one ballot the person he wishes to be President, and on another the person he wishes to be Vice-President. (5.) A list is then made of all persons voted for by the college, with the number of votes for each. (6.) The electors sign, certify, and seal such list, and send it to the federal capital, directed to the president of the Senate.

LII.—(1.) When the president of the Senate has received a sealed list from the electoral college of every State, he opens all of them in presence of the Senate and House of Representatives. (2.) The number of votes recorded in each list is ascertained, and the entire number counted.

LIII.—(1.) The candidate for President, whose name appears on a majority of electoral ballots, is declared President. (2.) The candidate for Vice-President, whose name appears in like manner on a majority of electoral ballots, is declared Vice-President.

L.—(1.) What persons become electors for President and Vice-President? (2.) What are these persons supposed to represent? (3.) What citizens are restricted from being chosen electors?

LI.—(1.) What do electors do when chosen? (2.) What does each elector do? (3.) What must one of his candidates *not* be? (4.) What does each elector name on his ballots? (5.) What list is then made? (6.) What is done with such list?

LII.—(1.) What does the president of the Senate do? (2.) What action is then taken?

LIII.—(1.) What person is declared President? (2.) What person is declared Vice-President?

LIV.—(1.) If no candidate for President appear to have received a majority of electoral votes, three persons, whose names were on the highest number of ballots, are placed as candidates before the House of Representatives. (2.) The members of that House then proceed to ballot till one of the three names receives the votes of a majority of the States represented, or until March 4th next ensuing.

LV.—(1.) In this balloting, each State is allowed but one vote, which is cast by a majority of its representatives present. (2.) If the House of Representatives shall fail to make its choice before March 4, then the Vice-President will act as President, according to the provision made in case of death or disability of the President.

LVI.—(1.) The Vice-President is chosen by the members of the Senate, instead of the House of Representatives. (2.) Out of two persons whose names were on the highest number of electoral ballots for Vice-President, the Senate chooses one to be the Vice-President, and to act as President in case of no choice of a President, as above.

JUDICIARY OF THE UNITED STATES.

LVII.—(1.) The federal judiciary consists of a supreme court, circuit courts, and district courts. (2.) The supreme court is composed of a chief justice and eight associate judges, appointed to hold office during good behavior. (3.) The judges of the supreme court are also circuit judges. (4.) The full supreme court holds one session a year at the national capital, for the review of cases on appeal, and the settlement of constitutional questions. (5.) A circuit court, held twice a year in every State, is composed of one supreme court judge and one district judge of the State or district wherein the court sits. (6.) The district courts are held in fixed

LIV.—(1.) What takes place if no person has been elected by the colleges? (2.) What do the representatives do?

LV.—(1.) How many votes has each State? (2.) What follows in case of no choice by the House of Representatives?

LVI.—(1.) Which House chooses the Vice-President? (2.) How is he chosen by the House of Representatives?

LVII.—(1.) Of what does the federal judiciary consist? (2.) How is the supreme court composed? (3.) Who are the circuit judges? (4.) What session does the full supreme court hold? (5.) What comprises a circuit court? (6.)

districts comprising a State, or portion of a State, by a judge appointed specially for the district. (7.) In some cases, a single district judge has two or more districts under his charge. (8.) There are a district attorney and a marshal appointed in each district. (9.) The first acts as a federal prosecuting officer, and the second acts as a federal sheriff. (10.) All constitutional points and offences against United States law, not controlled by State jurisdiction, are tried in the federal courts.

DEPARTMENTS OF GOVERNMENT.

LVIII.—(1.) The chief officer of the cabinet is called Secretary of State. (2.) He is head of the diplomatic department, communicating with foreign governments, American agents residing abroad, and agents of foreign powers resident in this country.

LIX.—(1.) The Secretary of the Treasury is head of a department of public finance. (2.) He examines into all accounts for and against the national government. (3.) He has charge of public moneys, and is accountable for their safe keeping and proper disbursement. (4.) He supervises the mercantile marine and commercial interests of the country, custom houses, duties and imposts.

LX.—(1.) The Secretary of War has charge of national military matters, defence of the country, and organization of government forces. (2.) The standing army of the United States consists of ten thousand men, distributed among various military stations located in States and territories. (3.) This regular force is maintained as a nucleus of such armies as might be called for in case of war. (4.) A national academy for instruction in military science is supported by the federal government.

What is said of the district courts? (7) What is sometimes the case? (8.) What legal officers are appointed from each district? (9.) In what capacity do these officials act? (10.) What jurisdiction have the federal courts?

LVIII.—(1.) What is the chief cabinet officer called? (2.) Of what department is he the head?

LIX.—(1.) What is the Secretary of the Treasury? (2.) What does he examine? (3.) Of what has he charge? (4.) What supervision does he exercise?

LX.—(1.) What is the Secretary of War? (2.) What is the United States standing army? (3.) Why is this regular force maintained? (4.) What military institution is supported by government?

LXI.—(1.) The Secretary of the Navy is head of all naval affairs connected with the federal government. (2.) The United States maintains a navy, composed of armed vessels, for the protection of trade upon the seas. (3.) Dock-yards and other naval stations are under superintendence of the navy department.

LXII.—(1.) The Postmaster-General is head of the mail and postal service of the United States. (2.) The federal government, through congressional action, establishes post-roads, and provides for carrying letters, newspapers, and other mail matter, throughout the States. (3.) All post-offices are under control of this department. (4.) Its contracts for transporting the mails are usually made with private express companies or agents.

LXIII.—(1.) The Secretary of the Interior is head of a department which has charge of public lands and mines, Indian affairs, pensions, patents, and public buildings. (2.) This department is usually called the Home Department.

LXIV.—(1.) The Attorney-General is prosecutor or advocate in all suits for or against the United States government in the Supreme Court. (2.) He is chief law adviser of the administration.

LXV.—(1.) Business, necessary or incidental to various departments, is transacted by clerks, deputies, commissioners and other officials, and by contractors or other agents. (2.) The more subordinate appointments are generally made by heads of departments. (3.) Higher offices are filled by nomination of the President and approval of the Senate.

LXI.—(1.) What is the Secretary of the Navy? (2.) What is said of the U. S. navy? (3.) What superintendence has this department?

LXII.—(1.) What is the Postmaster General? (2.) What does the federal government do? (3.) What control has the post-office department? (4.) What is said of its contracts?

LXIII.—(1.) What is the Secretary of the Interior? (2.) What is this department called?

LXIV.—(1.) What is the Attorney-General? (2.) What is his position in the cabinet?

LXV.—(1.) How is business appertaining to government transacted? (2.) How are the lower officials appointed? (3.) How are higher offices filled?

POPULAR GOVERNMENT.

CHAPTER I.

CHARTER GRANTS.

I.—(1.) In early ages nations and tribes were governed by two kinds of law. (2.) One consisted of orders proceeding from a king or other ruler, according to his will and power. (3.) The other was embraced in customs of the people. (4.) In some nations the king's power was restricted by religious customs or traditional laws.

II.—(1.) The custom of securing ownership in land or other property was a very ancient one. (2.) Abraham bought a plot of ground for burial purposes, paying for it in presence of witnesses. (2.) Security was sometimes given by a solemn oath between the parties. (4.) When written language came into use, the title to property was usually secured by writings inscribed on landmarks, or on metal and other material. (5.) Such writings were respected as agreements between men.

III.—(1.) Laws, edicts, and grants of privilege or property were signed and sealed. (2.) Mutual agreements so made were termed covenants, and regarded as sacred obligations. (3.) A ruler made grants of certain lands or privileges to his chief men and their families, or to his soldiers and other followers. (4.) When such grants were made under seal and signature, or witnessed with an oath, they were considered to be secured to those receiving them. (5.) In this way some rights and liberties were pledged to the subjects of a king or other ruler.

IV.—(1.) In ancient Egypt the laws were inscribed on stone monuments. (2.) In Greece and Rome they were engraved on metal tablets. (3.) We read of the Ten Commandments being carved on tablets of stone. (4.) Such laws and proclamations were sometimes affixed to the gates of the temples or public highways.

V.—When paper material came into use, covenants, laws and grants of privileges were written upon it. (2.) The term *charter* was employed to designate such writings; from a Greek word *chartos* signifying *paper*.

VI.—(1.) When tribes and nations yielded their rights as men to kings and other chief men, all authority was claimed by government. (2.) Every right or privilege was then held simply as a gift or grant bestowed by the ruling power. (3.) In some tribes the people reserved certain privileges to their own control. (4.) In other tribes a priesthood, or the soldier force, reserved special authority in matters pertaining to their own class. (5.) The right to choose their own military leaders or other chiefs was exercised by some tribes. (6.) This right was the origin of citizenship, and was always restricted to free born men, or men made free.

VII.—(1.) Classes of people often combined to claim privileges and rights from government. (2.) Such privileges and rights, when conceded, were usually secured under written laws or *charters*. (3.) The exercise of chartered rights constituted popular liberty in Greece and Rome.

VIII.—(1.) The first national charter on record was a Hebrew code of laws. (2.) Collections of royal edicts and proclamations constituted a written code of law in Assyria and Persia. (3.) In Greece and Rome codes of law were written in books and consulted by judges and lawyers. (4.) These laws constituted written guarantees of popular liberty. (5.) They enumerated rights and privileges of citizens which no ruler was permitted to set aside.

IX.—(1.) In the middle ages, feudal laws contained provisions for military service, manual labor, land holding and taxations. (2.) Military chiefs held lands by tenure granted under royal seal. (3.) Laborers on such lands were obliged to yield a portion of all products to their landlord, and to serve him in war or peace. (4.) Titles of nobility were conferred by kings and other superiors, as charter rights. (5.) Landholding and titles of rank created superior classes. (6.) These superior classes restricted the power of governments, while keeping the inferior classes in subjection.

X.—(1.) In England a charter was extorted from King John, by his chief barons in arms, supported by their tenantry. (2.) This charter secured large privileges to the land-holding class, and enumerated certain rights and privileges claimed by the people at large. (3.) It was called *Magna Charta*, and the present British constitution embodies some of its original provisions.

XI.—(1.) When British colonies were planted in North America, the settlers were secured by charters in various privileges and rights, granted to chiefs of colonizing companies. (2.) These charters were written documents called *patents* under royal seal and signature.

XII.—(1.) After the revolutionary war in 1776, the people of thirteen British colonies combined to frame a national constitution, uniting thirteen states, each governed by a state constitution or charter. (2.) The government of the United States was substituted for the British government, and the state constitutions took the place of royal charters or *patents*.

XIII. (1.) Under the constitution of the United States, all the people of states are united as a *nation*. (2.) It is required that each state constitution shall conform to the national constitution.

XIV. (1.) In the foundation of a new state, within the United States, the people of a territory first convene a body of delegates, to adopt a state constitution. (2.) This con-

stitution is then presented to the congress of the United States, and under its provisions the territory is admitted into the *Union* as a *State*.

XV. (1.) The people of a state elect representatives to meet as a state legislature. (2.) A state legislature enacts laws to be binding on every citizen. (3.) It may grant rights and privileges to individuals and corporations. (4.) A corporation may consist of any number of persons transacting business under a charter. (5.) The charter they receive is their security in transacting business. (6.) Charters are considered to be *vested rights* during the time for which they are granted.

XVI.—(1.) A vested right is a right or privilege which cannot be withdrawn through any contingency not specified. (2.) Rights secured by charters are called *franchises* or freedoms. (3.) They may be granted for a term of years, or without limit. (4.) Charters are the guarantees of persons associated in companies for any business purpose. (5.) Banking, Insurance, Manufactures, and various pursuits, are conducted by corporations under charter grants.

XVII.—(1.) The people of a village, town, county, or city may be authorized to transact public business as a corporation. (2.) Their rights and privileges are set forth in a charter granted by the state legislature, according to law. (3.) A legislative charter-grant is their security in conducting business, and during its term of operation it secures popular rights.

XVIII.—(1.) Cities, towns and villages may receive charters from the legislature as bodies corporate, to transact public business. (2.) Such charters, however, do not confer vested rights, such as corporations secure for private business. (3.) They constitute codes of laws or regulations; but are subject to repeal or modification by the legislature, unless their provisions be permanently enforced by statute or constitution.

CHAPTER II.

NATIONALITIES.

I.—(1.) Mankind has been classified in five varieties, the Caucasian, the Mongolian, the Ethiopian, the Malay, and the American. (2.) The Caucasian variety is white, the Mongolian yellow, the Ethiopian black, the Malay brown, the American red, in color of skin. (3.) These five varieties are subdivided into nationalities. (4.) A nationality consists of one or more tribes.

II.—(1.) A nationality is a union of people who dwell in neighborhood, or who are united by relations of kindred, or by other recognized connections. (2.) The ancient Hebrew nationality embraced Twelve Tribes descended from one family. (3.) Modern Hebrew people are merged in other nationalities, but recognize relations of kindred wherever they dwell.

III.—(1.) Nationality may be defined as a union of people by mutual consent and attachment to their country and its customs. (2.) Nationalities cannot be established by political authority or subjection. (3.) Tribes and communities may be forced to obey a national government, but subjection does not always nationalize them. (4.) Mutual acquaintance and common interests must unite them into nationality, and centuries of union are required to form such nationalities.

IV.—(1.) British nationality is a union of several parts of nationalities formerly in opposition. (2.) The Welsh people are descendants of original natives of England. (3.) The Irish once formed several distinct nations on their own island. (4.) The ancient Scotch people dwelt distinct in tribal families.

V.—(1.) French nationality and German nationality have grown up in like manner. (2.) Sometimes a strong tribe, or an army of soldiers, subdued another tribe or part of a nationali-

ty. (3.) Thus territories were joined together, and province was added to province. (4.) Most of the large nationalities in Europe have been increased by such additions of territory, with its inhabitants. (5.) A war or a treaty between principal states added territory to one or the other. (6.) The Austrian, Prussian and Russian nationalities have been augmented in this way. (7.) The Italian nationality is constituted by a union of several provinces formerly governed by separate sovereigns, or by Austria.

VI—(1.) A nationality made by mutual consent, and secured through a common language, and free institutions, is based on natural laws of association. (2.) Every citizen possesses the right to vote in agreement with a general government. (3.) No resort to war or revolution by arms is necessary. (4.) Every state is represented equally in the National Senate. (5.) All the people of the country are equally represented in the National Congress. (6.) Every question of difficulty may be settled by votes of the people at their elections. (7.) No large military force is necessary beyond the militia of each state.



CHAPTER III.

VILLAGES AND TOWNS.

I.—(1.) Village government is the basis of democratic institutions. (2.) It constitutes a union of free citizens for mutual intercourse and benefit. (3.) It is the simplest form of governmental law.

II.—(1.) A village of North American Indians was a democratic republic. (2.) A village of ancient Britain was likewise democratic in its government. (3.) Such villages are found at the present day in Africa and Polynesia, and among Arabian or Tartar tribes.

III.—(1.) Villages of civilized people may be democracies under the republican system. (2.) Democratic authority is exercised in town meetings of every village in the United States. (3.) Every voter is a citizen, and may cast his vote at a town meeting. (4.) The people of a village thus elect their officials and decide upon public measures for local welfare.

IV.—(1.) On matters beyond their local affairs, villages are governed by county and state laws. (2.) They are represented in boards of supervisors and by members of the legislature. (3.) In all business of village government they act as a democracy. (4.) In all matters of county or state interest they take part as a representative or republican democracy.

V.—(1.) The charter of a village corporation legalizes all public business transacted in accordance with it. (2.) Under its provisions the villagers elect local officers. (3.) The powers and duties of village officers are prescribed by the charter.

VI.—(1.) The customary government of a village in the United States is conducted by a Board of Trustees, who elect a President and clerk. (2.) In some villages a President is elected by the people in town meeting. (3.) Officers are chosen to fix the value of property and the amount of tax assessable on village inhabitants, and to collect all taxes. (4.) Other village officers are treasurers, road commissioners, fire-wardens, pound masters, fence-viewers, one or more being elected in each village. (5.) In some southern states the villages are denominated parishes.

VII.—(1.) A township may contain one or more villages. (2.) When a town government is constituted by charter-grant, the village government is merged in it. (3.) The officers of towns consist of assessors, road commissioners, justices of the peace, constables, overseers of the poor, inspectors of election, pound-masters, fence-masters, inspectors of weights and measures, town clerks and tax collectors. (4.) Each town charter fixes the number, term of office, and compensation of local

officers. (5.) Supervisors, or Select men are chosen to be chief officers of towns.

VIII.—(1.) The supervisor is a member of the town board. (2.) The town board consists usually of the supervisor, the town clerk, and the town justices. (3.) The supervisor represents the town in a Board of County Supervisors.

IX.—(1.) The inspectors of election act as a board of canvassers at each town election. (2.) Canvassers are officers who receive and count the votes cast, and keep a list of the voters. (3.) The supervisors of towns meet as a board of county canvassers, to count all votes cast in the county. (4.) They constitute a board of supervisors, to oversee county affairs.



CHAPTER IV.

COUNTY GOVERNMENT.

I.—(1.) As related, concerning early usages in England, a county was composed of *wapentakes*. (2.) Each *wapentake* comprised a land district, subsisting one hundred families. (3.) *Tythings* were subdivisions, subsisting ten families each. (4.) A county was known as a *shire*, and signified a division of the people for military purposes.

II.—(1.) The chief man of a *shire* was called an *earldorman*, and subsequently an *earl*. (2.) The title was equivalent to that of *count* in France. (3.) Thus the *shire* or territory of an *earl* came to be designated by Norman possessors as a *county*. (4.) The officer below an *earl* in rank was called a *viscount*, or vice-count. (5.) The sheriff of a county sometimes bore the title of *vice-count*.

III.—(1.) The title *sheriff* was originally *shire-reeve*; signifying a chief steward. (2.) The *reeve* of a *shire* collected

tithes and rents, and summoned the tenantry to attend their *earl*. (3.) The Anglo-Saxon name of *reeve* was *gerefa*. (4.) *Graf* is the German title for an earl or count.

IV.—(1.) *Villages, towns and counties*, as now known, were originally in England *tythings, hundreds and shires*. (2.) The land-holding tenants were called *franklins* or *freemen*. (3.) The freemen were enrolled as members of the *tythings* and *hundreds*. (4.) As population and industries increased, towns grew up. (5.) In populous towns, *tythings* became *wards*. (6.) In rural districts *tythings* increased to hamlets and villages. (7.) The word *hamlet* signified a collection of homesteads.

V.—(1.) In ancient Rome, land-holders dwelt in country-seats called *villas*. (2.) A Roman *villa* sometimes contained hundreds of families, slaves and freedmen, who served the proprietor. (3.) When lands were sold, slaves were sold with them. (4.) Hence they were called *villeins*, or land-slaves. (5.) Serf and serfdom were afterwards known as *villeinage*. (6.) Finally the word *village* became used to signify a collection of houses in rural districts.

VI.—(1.) A county may comprise a large city or a number of towns and villages. (2.) Counties in the United States are land divisions of every state. (3.) They are governed by boards of supervisors representing the towns. (4.) Each county has a sheriff, and a district attorney, as law officers. (5.) Counties are also served by county judges, jail officers, loan commissioners, and officers in charge of weights and measurements. (6.) Coroners and surrogates are county officers. (7.) A coroner examines into cases of sudden death. (8.) A surrogate is intrusted with the settlement of property bequeathed by wills.

VII.—(1.) Jail officers and measurers are usually appointed by the board of supervisors. (2.) Other officials are selected by the people for terms of years. (3.) District attorneys prosecute and defend suits for the people. (4.) Sheriffs have charge

of jails and prisoners, and serve legal papers, according to statute laws. (5.) Loan commissioners receive and loan money in accordance with statute laws. (6.) School commissioners visit schools in the county, examine teachers, and have care of public education in the county. (7.) Other officials are elected, when advisable, under charter or statute laws.

CHAPTER V.

LEGISLATURES.

I.—(1.) The voting people, in an American state, are represented in their state legislature. (2.) The number of representatives in a legislature is fixed by the state constitution. (3.) They are chosen from districts; a certain number of the population being apportioned to each district. (4.) The highest number of votes is necessary to elect a candidate. (5.) This is called a *plurality* of votes. (6.) Most of the officers elected in the United States are chosen by a *plurality* vote.

II.—(1.) The legislature of a state is sometimes termed its General Assembly. (2.) It comprises two branches, an upper house and a lower house. (3.) The upper house is styled a Senate. (4.) The lower house is usually called an Assembly or House of Representatives. (5.) The members of a State Senate are elected from large legislative districts. (6.) Members of the other house are elected from smaller legislative districts.

III.—(1.) Laws are passed by state legislatures in like manner as in Congress. (2.) A majority of votes in each house is necessary to pass a bill, and the Governor must sign it, to make it a law. (3.) Some laws require two-thirds of the votes in each house for their passage. (4.) A state legislature possesses all powers of law-making in accordance with the state constitution. (5.) Legislatures apportion and fix legislative districts after each state census.

CONGRESSIONAL DISTRICTS.

IV.—(1.) Members of Congress are chosen from districts fixed by law according to population. (2.) The apportionment is made by Congress after each national census. (3.) Congressmen are elected to the House of Representatives. (4.) United States Senators are elected by state legislatures.

V.—(1.) A state legislature elects a United States Senator to represent the state. (2.) Members of congress are elected to represent the people at large in congressional districts. (3.) The upper house and lower house of a state legislature elect a United States Senator by joint ballot. (4.) Each state is represented by her senators thus chosen. (5.) A congressional district must contain, at least, 113,000 inhabitants.

JUDICIAL DISTRICTS.

VI.—(1.) The judiciary of a nation embraces its courts of law and justice. (2.) Judges are officials appointed to hear and decide disputes, and to administer justice in cases of wrongdoing. (3.) Judges may be appointed by government, or elected by the people. (4.) In the United States there is a judiciary for the nation, and an independent judiciary in each state. (5.) A court of law is composed of one or more of the judges presiding over a trial.

VII.—(1.) The United States judiciary comprises a supreme court, circuit courts, a court of claims and district courts, and officials denominated commissioners. (2.) The supreme court consists of a chief justice and eight associate justices, appointed by the president of the United States and the senate, to serve during good behavior. (3.) The Supreme court is held at Washington. (4.) The circuit courts are held in nine judicial districts. (5.) Each circuit court is held by a supreme justice, and the district court judge.

VIII.—(1.) Supreme court and circuit judges conduct all trials in which the United States is a party to any suit. (2.)

Each circuit court deals with crimes committed in its circuit, and with civil suits involving no more than five hundred dollars. (3.) District courts are thirty-eight in number. (4.) In each district there is a United States judge, a U. S. district attorney, and a U. S. marshal, appointed by the president and senate. (5.) U. S. district courts have jurisdiction over all cases of United States law in their districts, whether on land or water.

IX.—(1.) The U. S. Court of claims is held at Washington. (2.) It is composed of a chief judge and four associate judges. (3.) It inquires into claims against the United States which are referred to it. (4.) Other United States courts are held in the territories not yet admitted as states. (5.) Each territory has a U. S. court, with a judge, district attorney and marshal.

X.—(1.) United States commissioners with judicial power are appointed for specific purposes. (2.) U. S. district attorneys are charged with the prosecution of government claims, and of offenders against United States law. (3.) U. S. marshals superintend the national census in their districts, once in ten years, and carry into execution the orders of U. S. courts.

XI.—(1.) Each state of the United States has its independent judiciary. (2.) The duties and powers of state and local courts are defined by law in each state. (3.) The constitution of a state usually defines state courts by name and limits of jurisdiction. (4.) Other courts in each state are provided for, by terms of town and city charters, or by statute laws. (4.) Law officers, corresponding to the courts, are either elected by vote or otherwise appointed.

JURIES.

XII.—(1.) Decisions in courts of law are intrusted to twelve judges, selected by lot from citizens at large. (2.) They are called *jurors*, and the twelve constitute a *jury*. (3.) They listen to the lawyers' pleas, and testimony of witnesses, and give their judgment under direction of the court. (4.) Their

judgment, when delivered, is called a verdict of a jury, and they are sworn to decide in accordance with law and facts proven. (5.) Every person accused of any offence against law is entitled to a trial by jury.

XIII.—(1.) Under the Saxon government in England a jury was composed of twelve freeholders chosen out of the *wapentake* or *hundred*. (2.) Freeholders are owners of real estate. (3.) In courts of Scotland a majority of any jury can deliver a verdict for all. (4.) In the United States, as in England, the twelve jurors must agree upon their verdict.

XIV.—(1.) Coroners' juries are composed of six or more citizens called by a coroner to view the body of a dead person, and decide as to the cause of death. (2.) Grand juries are juries of citizens summoned by law to inquire whether persons or corporations are chargeable with offences against law or public order.



CHAPTER VI.

MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT.

I—(1.) Municipal government means the government of free citizens in a town or city. (2.) Municipal rights are the rights of self-government, enjoyed by a city population. (3.) The word *municipes* means a citizen of a free town. (4.) Municipal law is charter law granted to a city by the supreme power of the state. (5.) Charter law confers *munities*, or *franchises* and securities, wherever it is bestowed. (6.) In a republic the people of a state confer *munities* by charter laws, and such munities are held as rights under charter laws.

II.—(1.) Roman towns regulated their own affairs; even under the Emperors. (2.) A specified body of citizens elected local judges and other officers. (3.) They likewise elected an officer called *city defender*, who protected citizens against

arbitrary or unjust ruling by imperial officers. (4.) Municipal government continued to be enjoyed by city populations during the middle ages. (5.) The German free cities and several Italian cities preserved local liberty in this way.

III.—(1.) When the Normans invaded England, their chiefs respected the claims of city populations to local government. (2.) Norman kings granted charters to London and other English towns. (3.) Viscounts were appointed in each shire, to act as county-sheriffs. (4.) A chief magistrate, called a *mayor*, was appointed in every large town, to act as the *bailiff* or civil governor. (5.) The title *bailiff*, arose from the word *baillie*; signifying free government. (6.) The title *mayor* comes from the word *major*; signifying *superior position* or power.

IV.—(1.) Free towns in England possessed a voting population, who elected local magistrates. (2.) They were known as tax-payers, and shared certain public duties and responsibilities. (3.) Privileges and munities were granted to them by charter from the crown. (4.) Trades-people in cities associated as *free guilds* under charter grants. (5.) Guilds were *trade-unions*, secured in special rights and privileges by royal charter.

V.—(1.) A land district occupied by dwelling-houses was anciently called a *borgh* or *borough*. (2.) The heads of families dwelling in a *borgh* became sureties for each other to their king or chief man. (3.) In return, they were defended by the chief in possession of their homes, and certain freedoms. (4.) The *borgh* system of mutual sureties is common in *Japan*. (5.) The word *borgh* signified a *security* or *defence*. (6.) As *boroughs* increased in population and dwellings, they became towns and cities. (7.) Charters from the crown confirmed their ancient rights, and granted others. (8.) In this way the right of representation in parliament was given to boroughs.

VI.—(1.) Municipal systems and borough systems are of very ancient date. (2.) They appear to have been known in all

nations under different names (3.) They preserved the principle of self-government from age to age. (4.) Rights of election and of representation were thus kept in mind. (5.) These rights were often encouraged by kings, to repress the power of the nobility.

VII—(1.) Cities of the United States are governed by local officers, chosen by their fellow citizens. (2.) The city limits are divided into districts called *wards*. (3.) In some cities a ward population elects a ward magistrate called *alderman*. (4.) In other cities a general body, styled a *Board of Aldermen*, or *Common Council*, is elected. (5.) Boards of Aldermen are legislative bodies for cities. (6.) They enact local laws and ordinances, in accordance with statute and charter laws.

VIII.—(1.) The Chief Magistrate of a city is called *Mayor*. (2.) He is charged with the supervision of municipal administration. (3.) Municipal administration is confided to municipal departments. (4.) The powers and duties of such departments are defined by charter or statute laws. (5.) Departments comprise the administration of justice, police affairs, health and safety of citizens. (6.) They likewise take charge of education, public charity, tax collection, public works, city finances, and public property. (7.) In a free city, or **MUNICIPALITY**, all local matters are regulated by resident voters, under charter-law securities.

CHAPTER VII.

STATE GOVERNMENT.

I.—(1.) A **STATE** is a body of people, under government of their choice, or under superior rule. (2.) It is a stationary or permanent body of people, occupying lands and dwellings. (3.) The territory occupied by a state population may be large

or small. (4.) The Republic of San Marino, in Italy, has existed a thousand years, with a territory of only twenty-one miles in area.

II.—(1.) Smaller states may be included in larger ones, preserving state boundaries and state laws. (2.) Large states may be governed by small states. (3.) The government of the Netherlands, representing five provinces, of different dialects, is called the states-general. (4.) Government of thirty eight American states is called the United States government. (5.) Each state population is distinct with state government; but all the people share in the general government through their elected agents.

III.—(1.) The United States government exercises no jurisdiction over state governments. (2.) Its power is intended to protect the people at large. (3.) It is intrusted with the supervision of commerce, currency, foreign intercourse, postal service, and taxation for national purposes. (4.) Its powers are controlled by congress and the constitution of the United States.

IV.—(1.) The two United States Senators of each state represent their state as a self-governing body. (2.) They have position and voice to declare the popular will of their state. (3.) The congressmen, elected from districts, represent a nationality of citizens throughout all the states. (4.) The agreement of senators and representatives, making laws, represents state governments and the nationality as one government.

V.—(1.) Each state of the United States is governed according to its own constitution. (2.) That charter of government is usually agreed upon in a state convention of elected delegates. (3.) It operates as supreme law during a specified term of years. (4.) Its provisions define the powers and the duties of state officers, courts of law, and other permanent officials and agencies of government. (5.) All legislation must be in accordance with those provisions.

VI.—(1.) A state government comprises a governor and lieutenant governor, a secretary of state, a state treasurer, and

a chief law officer. (2.) It sometimes embraces a council of state commissioners, of various departments, and other officials, appointed or elected under statute laws. (3.) It superintends all state works, prisons, highways, and water-ways, within its state limits.

VII.—(1.) The voters of each state vote for their own presidential electors. (2.) Presidential electors are state officers exclusively. (3.) They assemble, when elected, in a body called the state electoral college, within the boundaries of their own state. (4.) Their duty is to count and decide the vote of their state for president and vice president of the United States. (5.) They never go out of the jurisdiction or limits of their own state, but assemble as a college usually at the state capitol. When they perform their specified duties, they elect a messenger to carry their count to the national congress. (7.) They then adjourn as a state electoral college, concluding their official work.

COLONIZATION AND COMBINATION.

CHAPTER I.

MIGRATIONS.

I.—(1.) The earliest colonies, of which we have historic record, were planted by Egyptians and Phœnicians. (2.) Phœnicians were those tribes mentioned in Hebrew chronicles as Philistines. (3.) They inhabited the coast of Canaan, now called Palestine, from the foot-hills of Mount Taurus to an island called Tyre. (4.) Tyre, from its maritime situation, became a centre of commerce, and the Phœnicians were a nation of merchants and navigators. (5.) They traded with all people then known, through caravans traveling overland, or by vessels called galleys, with oars, rowed by slaves, and defended by armed soldiers. (6.) Colonies of Phœnicians and their slaves settled in Europe, forming communities, which peopled the lands now known as Spain, France, and Great Britain. (7.) Traits of Hebrew and Phœnician ancestors are traceable in their descendants of Celtic blood. (8.) Phœnician mariners and Hebrew slaves made original settlements, as far north as Ireland.

II.—(1.) Migrations from Egypt and Assyria, to other parts of Africa and Asia, and to Europe, were frequent in ancient times. (2.) Military chiefs conducted their families and slaves to remote distances, settling India and Farther Asia. (3.) When Egyptian or Assyrian soldiers and their priesthoods combined to migrate, they instituted their mode of government wherever they went. (4.) In this way a separation of people into *classes* was continued, through the *caste* system of India.

III.—(1.) Where pastoral tribes migrated, with their flocks and herds, they sought valleys defended from aggression by mountains and defiles. (2.) Weaker communities thus secured safer abiding places, and became mountain tribes. (3.) Pastoral people, in migration, associated or separated, accordingly as they were attracted by eligible areas of land, for grass and tillage. (4.) Thus various wandering families from Syria and Mesopotamia found their way to valleys of Taurian and Caucasian mountains, and spread over plains of Asia and Europe. (5.) Persians, Medes, and other mountain nations, were so established, usually governed by chiefs and chosen men. (6.) Patriarchal government was preserved in single tribes, wandering, with cattle, as Arabian families now move about. (7.) Such tribes, in combination, could readily constitute an independent nationality. (8.) Each male member of such tribes bore arms, and personal independence was encouraged in each community.

IV.—(1.) Wandering tribes confederated for mutual defence throughout Northern Europe. (2.) Thus originated those barbarian nations which afterward grew powerful enough to overrun the Roman Empire. (3.) Many of those confederate barbarians were descendants of people who had escaped from Assyrian or Egyptian servitude. (4.) Slavonian communities, now occupying Russia and Northern Europe, are the posterity of people who migrated from lands oppressed by Asiatic despotism. (5.) To such migrations of wandering tribes, colonizing upper Europe, all barbarian nationalities were traced.

V.—(1.) Barbarism was simply the subsistence of people in communities remote from civilized arts and sciences. (2.) Men were content to dwell in rude habitations, and to remain peaceful, so long as they obtained subsistence from the earth, or by such handicrafts as commanded wages for labor. (3.) But when they increased to numbers crowding the lands they occupied, subsistence was gained with difficulty, and they began to migrate in tribes and nations. (4.) Conducted by chosen chiefs, the barbarian tribes moved southward. (5.) Southern

Europe, above the river Rhine, was then a vast wilderness, inhabited by scattered tribes. (6.) Roman armies were sent to conquer those tribes, and were sometimes successful, sometimes defeated. (8.) When northern barbarians arrived at the Rhine, they combined with southern barbarians, to invade the Roman possessions.

CHAPTER II.

CONQUEST.

I.—(1.) In lower Asia, during ages, there were continuous successions of wars. (2.) Population in Eastern lands was augmented by the increase of persons captured in war or held in servitude as slaves by birth. (3.) There was no condition such as citizenship known in Egypt or Assyria. (4.) Priesthood and aristocracy constituted governing classes, who maintained armies of soldiers, paying for military service by taxation of the working people. (5.) Dynasties, or successions of monarchs belonging to one family, ruled from generation to generation. (6.) At intervals, revolutions took place, and dynastic government was transferred from family to family. (7.) A vigorous confederacy of pastoral tribes, invading Egypt, was able to take possession of that country and to change its rulers. (8.) In like manner, the Medes and Persians descended from their mountain villages, and conquered Assyria. (9.) Afterwards, a nation of Greek extraction, in Macedonia, under Alexander the Great, succeeded in subjugating both Egypt and Assyria.

II.—(1.) A history of the Eastern world, in those centuries, is a history of mankind enslaved by dynasties and aristocracies, and of wars made to coerce tribes and nations. (2.) Annals of European nations, during like periods, chiefly record an increase of Roman possessions by a similar employment of armies to subjugate foreign nationalities, and to substitute slave labor for free labor, in handicrafts and agriculture.

III.—(1.) Barbarism, in European wildernesses, preserved communities in comparative freedom and independence, while liberty was unknown to the masses of Eastern nations, and was lost by Greeks and Romans. (2.) When Greek republics yielded their independence, and the Roman commonwealth was crushed under imperial dynasties, all popular rights and liberties became extinct. (3.) Barbarian invasions had the effect of infusing new blood, and more manliness, into the communities they overran. (4.) Roman empire was divided under the rule of barbarian chiefs, and barbarian customs modified government everywhere. (5.) Despotie authority retreated to Asia, where it had originated. (6.) Several independent monarchies were established by barbarian armies in Italy, France and Germany.

IV.—(1.) But the masses of the people only changed masters. (2.) Sultans and shahs succeeded Assyrian kings in eastern countries, while military monarchs followed Cæsars, in forming aristocracies throughout Europe. (3.) Subordinate barbarian chiefs were endowed with large possessions of land, as gifts from their conquering leaders. (4.) Holding such grants of land, they claimed to rule over the people who owned such lands, making them tenants at will. (5.) In this way military followers of barbarian kings became feudal barons, with hereditary rank. (6.) Tillers of the soil, workers at handicrafts, and all laboring people, were looked upon as servants and slaves. (7.) Merchants and manufacturers were held to be inferior classes, and were compelled to pay taxes to support aristocratic and kingly government.

CHAPTER III.

ANNEXATION.

I.—(1.) Conquest by war, in ancient times, was usually followed by sequestration of territory. (2.) Conquered people were dispossessed of their lands, and sometimes removed from their own country, to become slaves or settlers in other lands. (3.) When the Jewish nation was subjugated by Assyrian invaders, large numbers of Jews were carried into Assyrian captivity. (4.) Invading monarchs were accustomed to divide a conquered country among their chiefs and soldiers. (5.) The practice of sequestering the lands of a people defeated in war, or reduced to submission, after rebellion, continued through many ages. (6.) When barbarian armies overran the Roman empire, all conquered territory was held to pass into possession of the invaders. When the Saxons subdued the island tribes of Britain, they took possession of lands, villages and cities. (8.) When the Normans subsequently conquered the Saxon nation in Britain, they divided lands and provinces in a like manner, among their chiefs and soldiers.

II.—(1.) Territories were sometimes passed from one government to another by peaceful transfer. (2.) In such cases, there was no sequestration of lands and no invasion of private titles to them. (3.) If the people, however, objected to a change of their governors, and rose in arms, to resist, they were treated as enemies, and, if repressed, were compelled to resign possession of their lands. (4.) When marriages were contracted between royal families, provinces and sometimes entire countries were transferred, as dowries or settlements. (5.) The preferences of communities or individuals, in regard to governing powers, were never consulted. (6.) Dynastic claims were the only claims respected in transferring territories from government to government. (7.) A dynasty was a

line or succession of monarchs, holding their authority by claims of blood-connection. (8.) Dynasties terminate when supplanted by superior force, or when the blood-relationship becomes extinct through death. (9.) Most of the European states are governed by dynastic successions.

III.—(1.) Wars and marriage connections between dynastic governments have constructed the principal countries of Europe and Asia, as they are now shown upon maps. (2.) Small territories, populated by land-holding lords, have been augmented through many generations of successive rulers, until they now rank as kingdoms and empires. (3.) Austria is formed out of various countries, formerly governed by independent sovereigns, and now ruled by an imperial dynasty. (4.) Prussian empire is the result of successful wars, followed by annexations and sequestrations of alien territory. (5.) The kingdom of Poland, after being subjugated by superior force, was partitioned between Russia, Austria and Prussia, losing its very name by absorption into foreign countries. (6.) The government of Austria extended, until lately, over a large portion of Italy. (7.) The government of England formerly laid claim to large territories in France, and waged successive wars to make good that claim. (9.) The Turkish government formerly ruled Greece, and several German principalities beyond the river Danube. (10.) But the defeat of Turkey by Russia, in the last war between those powers, afforded pretext for sequestration of Turkish territory between several European powers.

IV.—(1.) The government of Great Britain has sequestered and annexed a large part of Hindostan, and the chief islands of Polynesia. (2.) Great Britain has likewise, through successful wars or treaties, obtained territory in Asia, Africa and America. (3.) The government of Spain, claiming dominion by right of discovery, formerly ruled the whole of colonized South America. (5.) Spanish government in South America was overthrown by popular revolution, as British government in North America was limited in the same way.

(5.) Spain now holds possession of Cuba and Porto Rico, and Great Britain governs Canada and several West Indian islands, through a viceroy and governors.

CHAPTER IV.

AUTONOMY OF STATES.

I.—(1.) The right of every human being to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness is declared to be a natural and inalienable right. (2.) But natural rights are common to all human beings, and no individual right can permit one person to injure another. (3.) Each individual holds his natural rights subject to the welfare of all other individuals. (4.) No individual possesses the right to kill another, or to enslave another, or to interfere with another's pursuit of happiness. (5.) Warfare between governments authorizes individuals to kill in accordance with certain usages of war. (6.) Laws of a government command the life of a criminal to be taken, or the liberty of an offender against public order to be restricted. (7.) In such cases the natural right to life, liberty, and pursuit of happiness, is forfeited by the individual, because he or she becomes an offender against fellow beings, by invading their natural rights.

II.—(1.) As every individual in a community possesses natural rights, so it follows that communities of individuals possess the right to associate and be governed as they prefer, providing their combination and government do not molest or endanger the rights of other communities to select their own social and political modes of living. (2.) The rights of an individual become enlarged into the rights of all individuals constituting a community. (3.) The number of people embraced in such a community may be great or small. (4.) They may comprise a population, and claim a territory, of a few thousand people and a few hundred miles; but if they associate together in unity, and agree on their own form of government, they

constitute a *state*. (4.) Such a *state* is independent, by natural rights, of all other neighboring states, large or small. (6.) Its preference to be independent, as a community, and to dwell under such government as its people prefer, is said to be its claim to AUTONOMY.

III.—(1.) AUTONOMY is a word derived from certain Greek words; *autos* (meaning *self*;) and *nemein*, to *exercise rule*;) and its signification is *self-government*. (2.) The right of a state to self-government is its right to AUTONOMY. (3.) The limits of territory claimed by such a STATE are its *autonomic* limits. (4.) If a stronger state, by force of war, or by any pretext, deprives another self-governed people of territory, or imposes laws upon them without their consent, it invades and ends their AUTONOMY. (5.) When a border province of France has been annexed by Germany against the will of its people, or a border province of Germany is annexed by France in opposition to its inhabitants, the right of AUTONOMY is invaded and a community is denied its preference for self-government in its own territory. (6.) When the wars of Great Britain in India overthrew native governments, and substituted British sovereignty over Hindoo natives and their lands, there was an abolition of AUTONOMY in every subjugated Indian country. (7.) A treaty signed by European prime ministers, after the last war between Russia and Turkey, deprived the latter nation of several provinces, without consultation with the inhabitants of those provinces. (8.) The AUTONOMY of no divided or annexed country was guaranteed to its inhabitants, because they were transferred as if their lands and themselves had been bought and sold in open market.

IV.—(1.) If the AUTONOMY of every community, or nationality, in Europe and Asia, were respected by neighbors, and by governments at large, there would be SELF-GOVERNMENT for each state established by its people. (2.) Each state would then be sovereign and independent, like each of the United States of America. (3.) This would not prevent their association, state with state, to form a union of states, like the American

Union. (4.) Germany might be a nationality of German States, as it claims to be, with a full and free **AUTONOMY** guaranteed to each state. (5.) Austria might form a union of all Slavonic states, and allow **AUTONOMY** to every state embraced in it. (6.) The adoption of a national constitution, like that of the United States of America, and the recognition of a state constitution for each state, would constitute a national union, by which the people of every state, and every community in a state, could be represented in national congress. (7.) Dynastic authority is opposed to such **AUTONOMIC** independence; and central government, more or less despotic, is substituted for **autonomic** or popular self-government.

V.—(1.) The Republic of France embraces in its territorial divisions eighty-nine departments—presided over by prefects. (2.) If the people of those divisions were allowed to exercise **autonomic** government, they might elect a governor for each department by popular vote, under a state constitution, and provide for state judiciaries and other state, municipal, and village officers. (3.) This would approximate the French government to those forms which constitute **autonomic** government in the United States of America.

VI.—(1.) **AUTONOMY**, in popular government, is illustrated by the United States Federal and State constitutions. (2.) The American Union of states, as a **REPUBLIC**, is a complete form of **NATIONAL AUTONOMY**; defining its own government and the extent of its territory. (3.) Each state of the **UNION** is a complete state, self governed, and with defined boundaries. (4.) There are large states, like New York and Texas, claiming territory as wide in extent as some kingdoms of Europe. (5.) There are small states like Rhode Island and Delaware, of very limited dimensions. (6.) But each state is an **AUTONOMY**, equal in self-government to each of its fellow states, as members of the **NATIONAL REPUBLIC**.

COMITY OF NATIONS.

CHAPTER I.

TREATIES.

I.—(1.) Compacts between man and man, whether as individuals or communities, have been customary in all times. (2.) Solemn obligations, ratified by oaths, combined tribes and nations for war and peace. (3.) Stipulations for mutual defence against aggression, or agreements concerning boundaries of land, and privileges of trade or passage from country to country, were known in the earliest historic ages. (4.) Such common understanding between communities, generally made in writing, sealed and signed, are known as TREATIES.

II.—(1.) The obligations embraced by TREATIES constitute in modern times, the COMITY OF NATIONS; whereby friendly relations subsist, during peace, and certain usages of war are recognized. (2.) TREATIES embody a code of regulations and agreements between governments, generally termed INTERNATIONAL LAW. (3.) Special understandings may subsist, by treaty, between two governments, exclusive of other governments. (4.) Treaties are usually made by a convention of persons assembling together, as representatives of their respective governments. (5.) These representative persons are delegated with certain authority, by their respective governments, and are termed ambassadors or ministers.

III.—(1.) Ambassadors and ministers are of two kinds.

(2.) Resident ministers are persons appointed by one government to reside in the capital cities of other countries, as representatives of their own government. (3.) Ambassadors are usually appointed for a special duty, to represent their governments in a treaty-making convention or other congress of various powers. (4.) A minister resident continues to be his country's representative abroad for as long a period as his government employs him. (5.) He is the chief medium of international relations between his government and the government to which he is sent. (6.) He receives a salary for his services, and is assisted by a secretary of legation, and by other officials, appointed and paid like himself, by their own government.

IV.—(1.) The official intercourse between ambassadors, ministers, and other international agents, is called **DIPLOMATIC INTERCOURSE**. (2.) Besides ministers resident, other officials are appointed by different governments, to reside at the sea ports of other countries, and to act as representatives called consul-general, consuls, and commercial agents. (3.) A consul-general, in a foreign country ranks, next in authority to his country's minister-resident, and is chief of the various consuls and commercial agents representing his country. (4.) Consuls and commercial agents represent the government and commercial interests of their own country, and protect its citizens, in foreign parts.

V.—(1.) When cause of disagreement threatens war between two governments, the minister resident, or ambassador, suspends his functions, and retires to his own country; or his recognition, as a representative of his own government, is terminated by the government to which he is accredited. (2.) **COMITY** between the two nations then ceases, and, if war ensues, they are termed "belligerent governments." (3.) But the **COMITY OF NATIONS** remains in force over both, to regulate their modes of warfare, according to usages of civilization.

VI.—(1.) "Balance of power," as it is termed, is an arbitrary regulation, sustained by force, but recognized as a provision of comity between the principal nations of Europe.

(2.) Under its operations the stronger governments of Europe assume the authority to dictate boundaries of various countries. (3.) They dictate, by treaty stipulations, after a war, or to avert war, whether a province or a country shall belong to one or another European nation. (4.) Their decisions, at various periods, have transferred feeble governments to the control of stronger ones, and annexed or sequestered the territories of entire nations. (5.) The autonomy of a State, in Europe, is not considered, in such changes of its relations to other States. (6. Arbitrary enforcements of this "balance of power," destroyed the autonomies of Poland, Silesia, and various countries, once independently governed. (7.) The latest treaty made, under its operation, has transferred several provinces governed by Turkey to the control of Russia, Austria and Great Britain. (8.) "Balance of power," in Europe, continually endangers peaceful relations, and operates as a standing menace against the autonomies of border States.

CHAPTER II.

COMITY AND AUTONOMY.

I.—(1.) The COMITY OF NATIONS tolerates many abuses of arbitrary power exercised by civilized governments. (2.) It permits strong governments to oppress and abolish weaker ones, and to destroy nationalities, under pretext of civilizing or protecting them. (3.) Through its international agreements or understandings, large portions of Asia, comprising a hundred million inhabitants, have been made tributary to the small insular kingdom of Great Britain. (4.) Native governments of Hindostan have been abolished, and replaced by British rulers. (5.) In like manner, portions of Africa, America, and insular Asia, have been brought under arbitrary control of Great Britain; and several islands of the Mediterranean, and of

American seas, are governed by her military forces and civil authority.

II.—(1.) The aggrandizement of governments, through colonial possessions, and the control of large territories, beyond their own native soil, has always been a prolific cause of wars between nations, and of internecine strife. (2.) Internecine strife is an agitation of society which becomes manifest in rebellion and civil war. (3.) British rule over India is maintained by arbitrary repression of native population; and the military forces of Great Britain are employed in Africa and Polynesia, to suppress frequent insurrections. (4.) To maintain such unnatural governmental relations, with alien subjects, the citizens of Great Britain at home are heavily taxed, and excessive burthens are imposed upon tributary nations. (5.) From such inordinate taxation, the thirteen British colonies of America emancipated their communities, by the Revolution of 1776; and their progress, as a nationality, has since been based on autonomous institutions, as an example for all communities worthy to be free. (6.) The UNITED STATES OF AMERICA present the only solution, thus far, of that disputed problem—human capacity for self-government. (7.) If the REPUBLIC, left by GEORGE WASHINGTON, can be overthrown like all previous republics, the inherent unfitness of men to subsist in freedom must be admitted, and DESPOTISM will dominate the FUTURE of humanity, as it has subjected mankind, and debased manhood, through an immemorial PAST.

III.—(1.) The lessons presented by ancient and modern governments are of similar weight and purport. (2.) Nature, through language, climate, and physical lines of separation, divides and distinguishes different nationalities. (3.) Human governments, in all ages, have departed from Nature's indications, by their efforts to subject one people to another, and to merge different nations under one rule. (4.) The Assyrian government, in early centuries, abused its power, in the subjection of neighboring tribes and nationalities. (5.) It became an unwieldy despotism over provinces inhabited by people

who differed in language, religion, color and habits. (6.) It fell to pieces, when central power decayed, after Alexander's reign; and the Assyrian provinces were divided, under military adventurers. (7.) In like manner, the Roman empire, after subjecting all known countries to its military dominion, became a prey to foreign tribes of barbarians; and was broken up, after Constantine's reign, into governments ruled by military chiefs, Roman and barbarian. (8.) Charlemagne, in feudal ages, annexed Germany and Italy to France; but his death left half his dominions to military adventurers. (9.) Genghis Khan, Tamerlane, and other conquering monarchs, subjected India to their rule; but, when they passed away, their possessions were seized by chiefs of armies, and new governments replaced the central despotism. (10.) So, in his time, Napoleon Bonaparte marched his armies over continental Europe, and even menaced Asia with his arbitrary control. (11.) But his dominion fell to pieces, after the battle of Waterloo; and the monarchs of Europe returned to their thrones, to re-establish kingdoms, under their "Balance of Power" demands.

IV.—(1.) COMITY OF NATIONS has never yet established the vital principle of government, which is AUTONOMY, or self government. (2.) If every nation were permitted to decide upon its own boundaries of soil, according to agreement of nationalities, there would be no occasion for dynastic wars; and no government would then question another's right to independence. (3.) Dynastic wars have in all ages, been more frequent than other belligerent differences between nations. (4.) Quarrels that result from misunderstandings of national rights, or of international relations, might then be settled by international courts of arbitration, created by joint appointment of supreme judges; and revolutions would only take place, when local governments abused authority and oppressed their people. (5.) No standing armies, no frontier fortresses, and no iron clad war-ships, would be required. (6.) Vast sums of money, now raised by taxes, to be expended in wars, and prep-

arations for wars, might be employed to assure the prosperity of nations and communities, through works of internal improvements. (7.) Commerce would then flow, naturally, from land to land, according as commercial demands increased, through prosperous conditions of people in all countries. (8.) Markets would never be overstocked with manufactures, because all products of industry would be consumed by people as they increased in prosperity, and were able to purchase luxuries, as well as the comforts and necessities of life. (9.) Such conditioning of governments and society—every nation governing itself—every people aided to become industrious—would constitute a COMITY OF GOVERNMENTS such as Nature indicates; as her true relations of people to people, of families to families, and of individuals to individuals—helping **one another, and** hurting neither property nor life.

CONCLUSION.

I.—(1.) The HISTORY OF GOVERNMENTS has been brought down from years of earliest record to the present year. PEACE, in EUROPE and AMERICA, is interrupted only by the struggles of a few tribes and nations to maintain their own AUTONOMIES, against invading powers. (2.) The governments of Russia and Turkey, after an exhaustive war, terminated their quarrel by stipulations agreed upon, in a congress of European powers, convened at Berlin, in 1877. (3.) The empire of Germany, constituted after a struggle between the forces of France and Prussia, is governed by a constitution, which modifies in some respects the arbitrary authority exercised by an imperial government. (4.) The kingdom of Spain, after a revolution which left a transient republican government, is governed by a king chosen by the *Cortes* or national assembly. (5.) The republic of France, maintaining a standing army, is still menaced by perils arising therefrom, whenever some successful revolution may confer power upon a military adventurer. (6.) The kingdom of Great Britain, with its subject empire of India, depends mainly upon prosperous commerce and manufactures, to preserve peace at home and maintain imperial dominion over extensive territories classed as British Possessions. (7.) The extensive northern empire of Russia is disturbed by democratic agitations, which extend through all classes of its people, who are oppressed by a despotism responsible to no authority but its own. (8.) The nations and tribes once ruled by Assyrian and Persian dynasties, in Asia Minor,

are subjected to rapacious governors, who over-tax and oppress the industrial classes, under Turkish military rule, from Syria and Egypt to the borders of Russia. (9.) The united kingdom of Italy has been constituted by a combination of all Italian States, including states of the Church, as a constitutional monarchy, with its capitol at Rome; and all temporal dominion, exercised during twelve hundred years, has passed away, from the Pope of Rome. (10.) The imperial government of Austria is now confined to a few German States, and her Slavonic provinces; all Italian provinces being lost to her, through wars with Prussia and France.

II.—(1.) Other States of Europe conserve their forms of governments as presented in our HISTORY, before its revision. (2.) Minor States, embraced in the German confederation, as more or less autonomic, and those States bordering Austria and Turkey, known as the “Danubian Principalities” have not been separately described; because their forms of government are sufficiently defined in chapters upon other Minor States. (3.) For this reason, also, we have omitted special mention of several Asiatic States, embracing BURMAH, SIAM, AFGHANISTAN, KHIVA, and some island kingdoms of ASIA; MADAGASCAR, ABYSSINIA, SOUDAN, ASHANTEE, TIMBUCTOO, DAHOMEX; barbarian or savage kingdoms of AFRICA; the kingdom of MUSCAT, in ARABIA; and those Arabian communities which subsist in Mount Lebanon, as DRUSES, MARONITES, and other tribal autonomies, more or less subjected to Turkish rule.

III.—(1.) Our HISTORY OF GOVERNMENTS comprises all that is interesting or useful to comprehend, in a work treating of governmental structures, as they have been modified under changes of time. (2.) If its pages likewise comprehend an instructive moral, suggested by comparison, or a lesson intimated by facts, they will subserve the purpose kept in view. (3.) That purpose was to show, through simple detail, the superiority of self-government over all subjective governments, and to illustrate the NATURAL TRUTH, that, if MANHOOD cannot become a law unto itself, and a conservator of its own INDEPENDENCE,

There is no form of government or law that can preserve MANHOOD in liberty of life. (4.) Nationalities are aggregations of individualisms; and if manhood forsake the individual, it will abandon the nation. (5.) Armies, which dominate communities of slaves or subjects, conserve military manhood, but at the loss of moral manhood; and the loss of moral manhood may make slaves of soldiers as well as of citizens. (6.) Citizen soldiers, such as subsist in tribe-life, are the only military type for civilized communities to accept; and the armed citizen of an orderly commonwealth is the best conservator of manhood, as he is the best type of military force. (7.) With every nationality in the enjoyment of autonomic manhood, a MILITIA establishment is the best military establishment; because it can be subjected to no chief and no paymaster. (8.) And with MANHOOD in government, to preside over MANHOOD in society; community aiding community—individual aiding individual—toward INDUSTRIAL PROSPERITY; AUTONOMY would elevate every nation, and CIVILIZATION might make possible a **UNIVERSAL COMMONWEALTH.**

THE END.

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